



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines


Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>



SPIRAL COURSE
IN ENGLISH


INDUCTIVE
LESSONS IN

LANGUAGE
AND
GRAMMAR

HARRIS

SECOND
BOOK

D. C. Heath & Co.
Boston New York Chicago



Educ T 759.03.420

Bk2

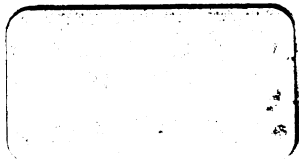


Harvard College Library

THE GIFT OF

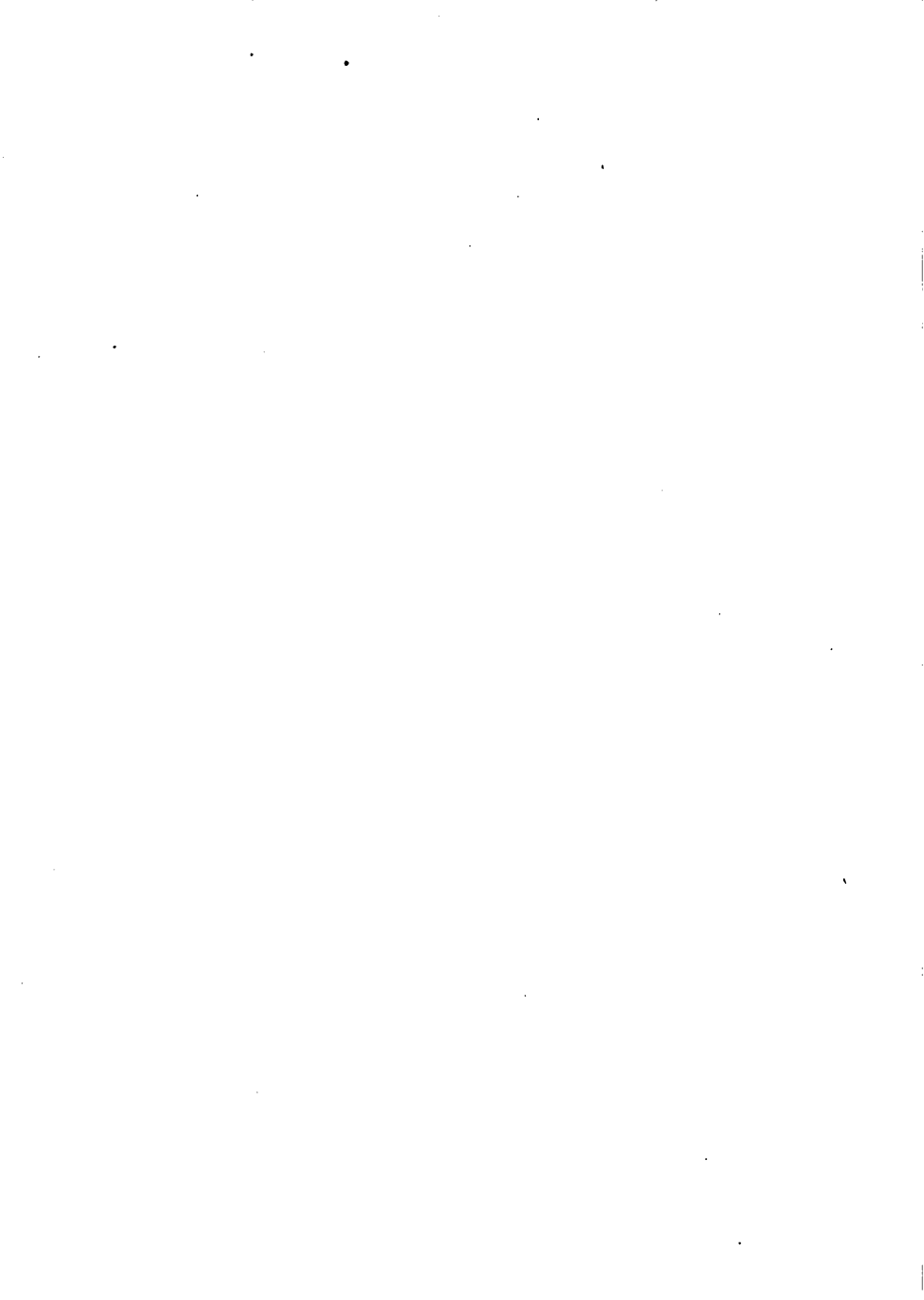
GINN AND COMPANY

DECEMBER 26, 1923





3 2044 097 057 251



HARRIS'S SPIRAL COURSE IN ENGLISH

INDUCTIVE LESSONS

IN

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

BY THOMAS G. HARRIS, M.A.

PRINCIPAL STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

SAN MARCOS, TEXAS

SECOND BOOK

BOSTON, U.S.A.

D. C. HEATH & CO., PUBLISHERS

1903

Edue T 759.03.420 13k2
✓

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY
GIFT OF
GINN AND COMPANY
DEC. 26, 1922

COPYRIGHT, 1903, BY THOMAS G. HARRIS

PREFACE

WITH such modifications as are necessary for adaptation to the needs of more advanced students, the general plan of sentence study followed in the First Book of the SPIRAL COURSE IN ENGLISH has been continued in this Second Book.

The sentence, defined as an organization of words expressing a thought, is taken as the unit of language and made the basis of study. The elements of the sentence—words, phrases, and clauses—are treated as organs performing specific functions in the expression of thought, and are studied in the performance of these functions and not as separate, isolated structures. The properties and modifications of words are considered only in their relations to the functions of the words in the expression of thought.

Each succeeding Part of this book provides for a review and an extension of work previously done.

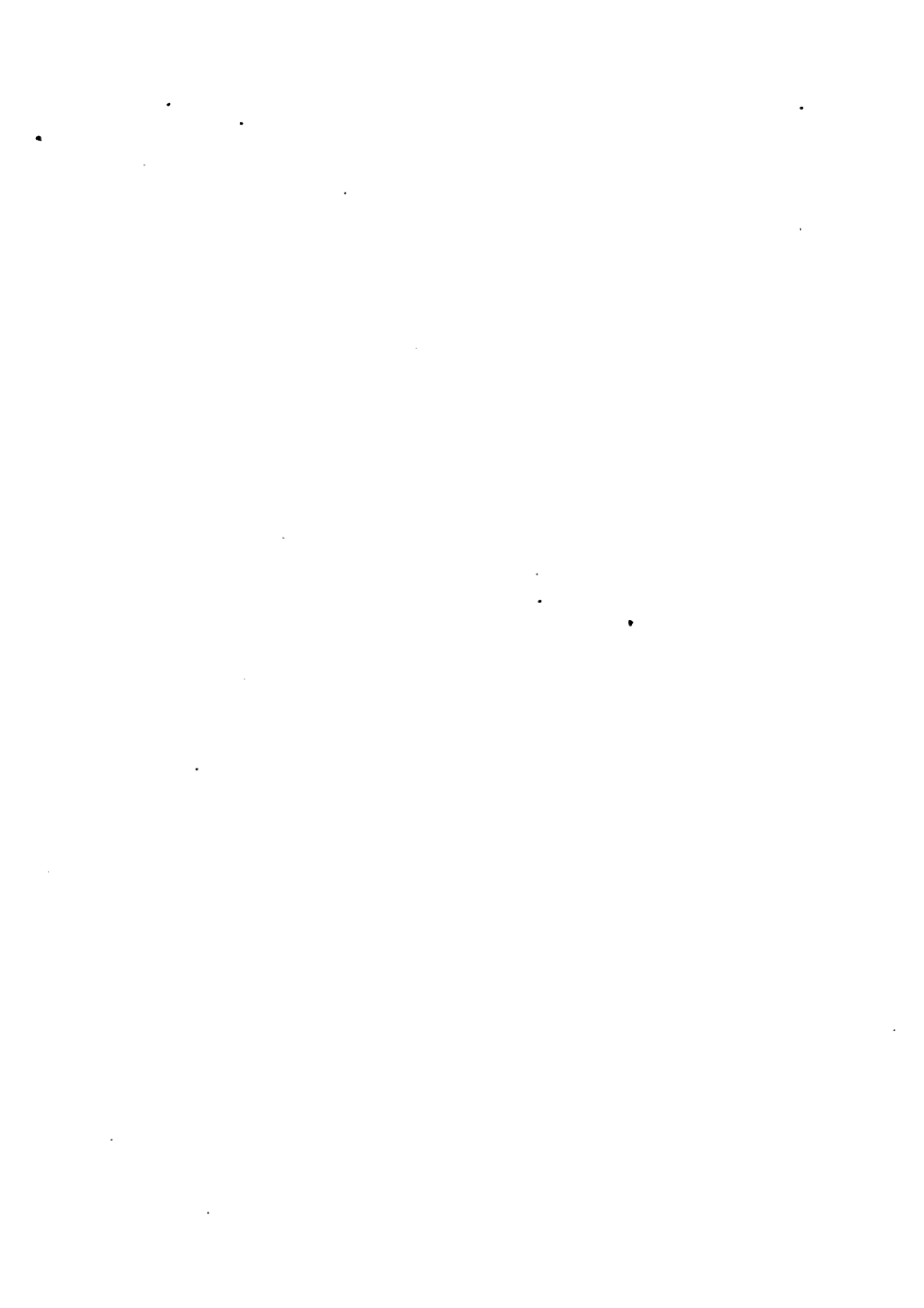
The facts and the principles of the language are taught by inductive processes.

Ample provision for drills and reviews is made, not only in the great number and variety of sentences given for study, but also in the abundance of constructive work suggested and outlined.

A duplex system of gradation is established in the character of the sentences studied and in the method of treatment, as follows: 1. The simple sentence, composed of its two essential elements, unmodified, is first studied. One by one the different forms and classes of modifiers are introduced. 2. The sentence as a whole is studied first; then, its principal subdivisions; last, the details of close analysis. This double basis of gradation is in harmony with the growth of language power in pupils, and is therefore essential to proper methods of sentence study and sentence teaching.

THOMAS G. HARRIS.

Austin, Texas, February, 1903.



CONTENTS

PART ONE

LESSON		PAGE
I.	Classes of Sentences	11
II.	Writing Sentences	12
III.	Subject and Predicate	12
IV.	Compound Subjects and Predicates	14
V.	Words in a Series	15
VI.	Names or Nouns	16
VII.	Nouns—Common and Proper—Initials	16
VIII.	Nouns—Singular and Plural	17
IX.	Nouns—Singular and Plural	18
X.	Nouns—Singular and Plural	19
XI.	Gender of Nouns	20
XII.	Exercise in Gender of Nouns	21
XIII.	Exercise in Gender of Nouns	21
XIV.	A Review	22
XV.	Possessive Forms of Nouns	22
XVI.	Verbs	23
XVII.	What Verbs Do	24
XVIII.	Verbs that take Objects	25
XIX.	Adjectives	26
XX.	Predicate Adjectives	28
XXI.	Predicate Nouns	28
XXII.	Use of the Possessive Form	29
XXIII.	A Review	30
XXIV.	A Review (<i>continued</i>)	31
XXV.	Pronouns	32
XXVI.	Gender of Pronouns	32
XXVII.	Number of Pronouns	33
XXVIII.	Person of Pronouns	34
XXIX.	Pronouns as Subjects and Objects	34
XXX.	Possessive Forms of Pronouns	35
XXXI.	Predicate Pronouns	36
XXXII.	A Review	37
XXXIII.	Comparison of Adjectives	38
XXXIV.	Comparison of Adjectives (<i>continued</i>)	39
XXXV.	A Spelling Lesson	40
XXXVI.	Adjectives Modify Pronouns	40
XXXVII.	Comparison of Adjectives	41

LESSON	PAGE
XXXVIII. Adjectives in a Series	42
XXXIX. Nouns in a Series	43
XL. Pronouns in a Series	43
XLI. A Review	44
XLII. Analysis and Diagraming	44
XLIII. Adverbs	45
XLIV. Adverbs (<i>continued</i>)	46
XLV. Adverbs (<i>continued</i>)	47
XLVI. Adverbs in a Series	48
XLVII. Prepositions and Phrases	48
XLVIII. Phrases as Adjectives and Adverbs	50
XLIX. Possessive Forms and Equivalent Phrases	51
L. Diagraming	52
LI. Words and Equivalent Phrases	52
LII. Conjunctions	53
LIII. Use of Conjunctions	54
LIV. Interjections	54
LV. Parts of Speech	55
LVI. Tense of Verbs	57
LVII. Five Forms of Verbs	57
LVIII. Regular and Irregular Verbs	58
LIX. Five Forms of Irregular Verbs	59
LX. Name Form, S-Form, and Past Form	61
LXI. Past Form and Past Participle Form	62
LXII. Use of the Five Forms	63
LXIII. Use of the Five Forms (<i>continued</i>)	63
LXIV. Sentence Writing	64
LXV. Sentence Writing in Review	65
LXVI. Writing Sentences in Review	65
LXVII. <i>Lie, Lay; Rise, Raise; Sit, Set</i>	66
LXVIII. Abbreviations	67
LXIX. Contractions	67
LXX. Use of Contractions	68
LXXI. Quotations—Direct and Indirect	69
LXXII. Questions—Direct and Indirect	71
LXXIII. Letter Writing	72
LXXIV. Letter Writing	74
LXXV. Exercise in Analysis	74
LXXVI. Exercise in Parsing	77
LXXVII. General Review	77

PART TWO

LESSON	PAGE
I. Sentences Classed as to Meaning	79
II. Simple Sentences and Compound Sentences	80
III. Compound Sentences and Complex Sentences	81
IV. Sentences Classed as to Form	83
V. The Elements of the Sentence	84
VI. Simple Sentences containing Compound Elements	85
VII. Simple Sentences containing Compound Elements (<i>con.</i>)	86
VIII. Adjective Clauses	87
IX. Adverb Clauses	88
X. Noun Clauses	89
XI. Classifying Subordinate Clauses	90
XII. Classifying Sentences	91
XIII. Use of Words, Phrases, and Clauses	92
XIV. Words, Phrases, and Clauses used as Modifiers	93
XV. The Parts of Speech	94
XVI. Inflection, Modification, and Structures	95
XVII. Rules for Capitals and Punctuation Marks	97
XVIII. Nouns—Classification	97
XIX. Exercise in the Classes of Nouns	99
XX. Use of Nouns in Sentences	100
XXI. Gender of Nouns and Pronouns	101
XXII. Exercise in Gender	102
XXIII. Number of Nouns and Pronouns	103
XXIV. Number of Nouns and Pronouns (<i>continued</i>)	105
XXV. Person of Nouns and Pronouns	105
XXVI. Case in Nouns	106
XXVII. Exercise in Case, Construction, and Inflection of Nouns	108
XXVIII. Parsing Nouns	109
XXIX. Appositive Modifiers	111
XXX. A Review	112
XXXI. Pronouns—Substantives	113
XXXII. Modifications of Personal Pronouns	114
XXXIII. Modification of Personal Pronouns (<i>continued</i>)	116
XXXIV. Exercise in using Personal Pronouns	117
XXXV. Concord of Personal Pronouns	118
XXXVI. Concord of Personal Pronouns (<i>continued</i>)	119
XXXVII. Exercise in Use of Personal Pronouns	121
XXXVIII. Modifications of Interrogative and Relative Pronouns	122
XXXIX. Adjective Pronouns	123
XL. Exercise in Pronouns	124
XLI. Parsing Pronouns	125
XLII. Parsing Pronouns	127

LESSON	PAGE
XLIII. Parsing Pronouns	128
XLIV. Adjectives—Classes	128
XLV. Inflection of Adjectives	129
XLVI. Inflection of Adjectives (<i>continued</i>)	131
XLVII. Use of Articles— <i>This</i> and <i>That</i>	132
XLVIII. Use of Comparatives and Superlatives	134
XLIX. Use of Comparatives and Superlatives (<i>continued</i>)	135
L. Parsing Adjectives	136
LI. Verbs—Classes	137
LII. Exercise in Use of Irregular Verbs	139
LIII. Complements of Verbs	140
LIV. Voice	142
LV. Mode, or Mood	144
LVI. Tenses of the Indicative	147
LVII. Modifying Tense Forms in the Indicative	149
LVIII. Tenses in the Potential Mode	151
LIX. Tenses in the Other Modes	152
LX. Person and Number in Verbs	153
LXI. Notional and Auxiliary Verbs	154
LXII. Conjugation of Auxiliary Verbs	155
LXIII. Conjugation of <i>Be</i>	158
LXIV. Conjugation of <i>Go</i>	159
LXV. Uses of <i>Be</i> as an Auxiliary	159
LXVI. Synopses	160
LXVII. Mode Forms and Uses	161
LXVIII. Mode Forms and Uses (<i>continued</i>)	162
LXIX. Forms and Uses of the Infinitive	164
LXX. Forms and Uses of the Infinitive (<i>continued</i>)	165
LXXI. Forms and Uses of Participles	167
LXXII. Nouns and Pronouns used with Infinitives and Participles, and Nouns and Pronouns used Independently	169
LXXIII. Parsing Verbs	172
LXXIV. Kinds and Uses of Phrases	174
LXXV. A Review	175
LXXVI. A Review (<i>continued</i>)	176
LXXVII. Uses of <i>Shall</i> and <i>Will</i>	177
LXXVIII. <i>Shall</i> and <i>Will</i> in Questions	178
LXXIX. Verbs Incorrectly Used	179
LXXX. Adverbs—Classes	180
LXXXI. Parsing Adverbs	183
LXXXII. Prepositions	184
LXXXIII. Conjunctions and Interjections	186
LXXXIV. Exercise in Parsing and Analysis	188

PART THREE

LESSON	PAGE
I. Words and Ideas—Thoughts and Propositions	189
II. The Sentence—Sentences Classified as to Form	190
III. Sentences Classified as to Meaning	192
IV. The Adjective Clause—Kinds	194
V. The Adjective Clause—Connectives	196
VI. The Adjective Clause (<i>continued</i>)	197
VII. The Adverb Clause: Classes	199
VIII. Exercise in Classifying Adverb Clauses	201
IX. Exercise in Classifying Adverb Clauses	203
X. Exercise to be Written	204
XI. The Substantive Clause—Uses	204
XII. Substantive Clauses—Introductory Words	205
XIII. Exercise in Substantive Clauses	207
XIV. Classifying Subordinate Clauses	208
XV. A Review	210
XVI. The Compound Sentence—Members and Connectives	210
XVII. Exercise in Classifying Members	212
XVIII. Compound and Complex Sentences: Exercise	213
XIX. Complex Sentences Abridged	216
XX. Abridgment of Complex Sentences	219
XXI. Exercise in Abridging Complex Sentences	220
XXII. Compound Sentences Abridged	220
XXIII. Case Forms and Constructions of Nouns and Pronouns	221
XXIV. Case Forms and Constructions of Nouns and Pronouns (<i>con.</i>)	225
XXV. Case Forms and Constructions of Nouns and Pronouns (<i>con.</i>)	227
XXVI. Case Forms and Constructions of Nouns and Pronouns (<i>con.</i>)	229
XXVII. Case Forms and Constructions of Nouns and Pronouns (<i>con.</i>)	232
XXVIII. Case Forms and Constructions of Nouns and Pronouns (<i>con.</i>)	235
XXIX. Summary of Case Forms and Constructions of Substantives with Exercises	237
XXX. Exercises in Case Forms and Constructions of Substantives	239
XXXI. Constructions of Adjectives	241
XXXII. Equivalents of the Adjective	243
XXXIII. Exercises in Adjectives, in Substantives, and in Analysis	244
XXXIV. Forms, Functions, and Constructions of Participles	245
XXXV. Constructions of Participles	248
XXXVI. Constructions of Participles (<i>continued</i>)	250
XXXVII. Summary of Participial Constructions—Exercises	251
XXXVIII. Exercises in Participial Constructions	252
XXXIX. Exercise in Analysis	254
XL. Exercise in Constructions	254
XLI. Forms, Functions, and Constructions of the Infinitive	254

LESSON	PAGE
XLII. Constructions of the Infinitive	257
XLIII. Exercise in Infinitive Constructions	259
XLIV. Exercise in Analysis	261
XLV. Clauses Contracted into Participial Phrases—Caution	262
XLVI. Adjectives and Adverbs: When Used, and How Placed	263
XLVII. Concord of Verb and Subject	267
XLVIII. Concord of Verb and Subject (<i>continued</i>)	269
XLIX. Concord of Verb and Subject (<i>continued</i>)	271
L. Exercise in Concord of Verb and Subject	273
LI. Sequence of Tenses; Present Tense Form in General Truths	275
LII. Imperative Mode Forms and Uses	278
LIII. Subjunctive Mode Forms and Uses	280
LIV. Some Special Uses of Pronouns	284
LV. Some Special Uses of Pronouns (<i>continued</i>)	286
LVI. Specimen Words Variouslly Used	289
LVII. Syntactical Idioms and Anomalies	293
Appendix A	298
Appendix B	302
Appendix C	308

PART ONE

I. CLASSES OF SENTENCES

1. Study these groups of words:

1. Peking is the capital of the Chinese Empire.
2. Do the Chinese travel in wheelbarrows?
3. Please let me see that picture of the wheelbarrow.
4. What a clumsy vehicle a Chinese cart is!

2. Note that the first makes a statement, the second asks a question, the third conveys a request, and the fourth expresses an exclamation.

DEFINITIONS:

A group of words making a statement is called a Declarative Sentence.

A group of words asking a question is an Interrogative Sentence.

A group of words conveying a request or making a command is an Imperative Sentence.

A group of words expressing strong feeling or sudden emotion is an Exclamatory Sentence.

3. Look again at the four sentences given, and then tell (1) how each begins, and (2) what mark is put at the end of each.

4. Write three sentences of each class, using capital letters and punctuation marks correctly.

II. WRITING SENTENCES

1. Write a declarative sentence about each of these:

a piano the river a boat snow my friend

2. Write interrogative sentences about these:

Chicago a lake bacon a packing house

3. An imperative sentence sometimes contains the name of the person addressed; as,

John, read the next sentence.

Study your arithmetic, pupils.

The name of the person addressed is set off from the rest of the sentence by the comma.

4. Write imperative sentences as follows:

a. Commanding your pony to trot faster.

b. Ordering your dog to get off the hearth.

c. Requesting your classmate to lend you a book.

5. Write exclamatory sentences about these:

the hot day

the bright light

the cold wind

a sad misfortune

6. Be careful about capitals and punctuation marks.

III. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

1. Every sentence must have at least two parts; as,

Storms rage.

IV. COMPOUND SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES

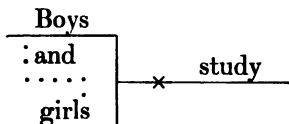
DEFINITION:

A subject consisting of two or more nouns or pronouns is called a Compound Subject; as,

Boys and girls study.

The compound subject of this sentence is composed of the two nouns "Boys" and "girls," connected by "and."

1. This sentence may be diagrammed thus:



ANALYSIS: This is a declarative sentence; why? "Boys and girls" is the subject; why? It is a compound subject; why? "Study" is the predicate; why?

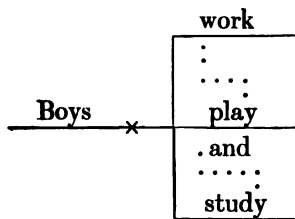
DEFINITION:

A predicate consisting of more than one verb is called a Compound Predicate; as,

Boys work, play, and study.

The compound predicate of this sentence is composed of "work," "play," and "study," connected by "and."

2. This sentence may be diagrammed thus:



ANALYSIS: This is a declarative sentence; why? "Boys" is the subject; why? "Work, play, and study" is the predicate; why? It is compound; why?

3. Diagram and analyze these sentences:

1. Poets and historians write.
2. Statesmen write and speak.
3. Farmers plant and reap.
4. Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John wrote.

V. WORDS IN A SERIES

DEFINITION:

Three or more words used in the same way in a sentence form a Series; as,

1. Farmers plow, plant, till, and gather.
2. It seldom rains, snows, or sleets there.

1. A comma is placed after each word in a series except the last; *and* or *or* is used only before the last word in a series.

2. For each of the following subjects write a predicate consisting of a series:

1. Mechanics ———.
2. Horses ———.
3. Men ———.
4. Boys ———.

3. For each of the following predicates write a subject consisting of a series:

1. ——— labor.
2. ——— walk.

3. — swim.

4. — fly.

4. See that you use the comma and *and* or *or* correctly.

5. Diagram and analyze the eight sentences that you have written.

VI. NAMES OR NOUNS

1. Write three names of persons; three names of places; three names of things.

DEFINITION:

The name of a person, a place, or a thing is a Noun.

2. Copy the following sentences, drawing one line under each name of a person, two lines under each name of a place, and three lines under each name of a thing:

1. Cortez conquered Mexico nearly four hundred years ago.

2. Columbus discovered America more than four hundred years ago.

3. The white people found Indians living in this country.

4. The Rocky Mountains are in the western part of the United States.

5. Webster was an orator and statesman.

6. Gold, silver, iron, and lead are dug from the earth.

7. Tea grows in China and Japan.

8. Cattle and horses roam over the prairies.

VII. NOUNS—COMMON AND PROPER—INITIALS

1. A prize is to be awarded to a *pupil*. We find that it has been won by a *boy*. We see it given to *Tom*.

2. The noun *pupil* is applied to any one in the class. The noun *boy* is applied to any male pupil in the class. The noun *Tom* is applied to one particular boy.

DEFINITIONS:

A name that may be applied to any one of a group or class of objects is a Common Noun; as, pupil, boy.

A name that is applied to one particular object is a Proper Noun; as, Tom.

RULE:

A Proper Noun begins with a capital letter.

3. Point out the proper nouns and the common nouns in the sentences given in Lesson VI.

4. Write two sentences, using proper nouns as subjects; two sentences, using common nouns as subjects.

5. Sometimes only the initials of proper names are written; as, J. R. Lowell, or J. R. L.

RULE:

Each initial should be a capital, and when used as an abbreviation should be followed by a period.

VIII. NOUNS—SINGULAR AND PLURAL

DEFINITIONS:

When a noun means but one, we say it is singular, or in the singular number; as, boy, cat, ball.

When a noun means more than one, we say it is plural, or in the plural number; as, boys, cats, balls.

RULE:

Most nouns form the plural by adding s to the singular.

1. Write the plural of these:

book pencil carpet train cupful spoonful

2. Write the singular and the plural of ten other nouns of this class.

RULE:

Nouns ending in ch (sounded as in church), sh, s, x, or z form the plural by adding es; as, church, churches.

3. Write the plural of each of these:

gas	moss	arch	thrush	tax
lass	branch	bush	ax	topaz

4. Write the singular and the plural of ten other nouns of this class.

IX. NOUNS—SINGULAR AND PLURAL

RULE:

Some nouns ending in f or fe form the plural by changing f or fe into ves; as, calf, calves.

1. Write the plural of these nouns:

beef	leaf	self	thief
half	life	sheaf	wife
knife	loaf	shelf	wolf

RULES:

Some nouns ending in f or fe form the plural by adding s; as, chief, chiefs; fife, fifes; grief, griefs; gulf, gulfs.¹

¹ Pupils should be taught to consult the dictionary when in doubt as to the spelling of the plural of any word of this class.

Nouns ending in y preceded by a vowel form the plural by adding s; as, day, days.

2. Write the singular and plural of ten nouns of this class.

Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant form the plural by changing y into ies; as, fly, flies.

3. Write the singular and plural of ten nouns of this class.

Most nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant form the plural by adding es; as, negro, negroes; potato, potatoes.

Other nouns ending in o form the plural by adding s; as, folio, folios.

4. Write the singular and plural of three nouns which, ending in o, form the plural by adding *es*.

5. Write the singular and plural of three nouns which, ending in o, form the plural by adding *s*.

X. NOUNS—SINGULAR AND PLURAL

1. Some nouns form the plural by a change of vowels; as, *man, men*. Write the singular and the plural of five nouns of this class.

2. Some nouns have the same form in the plural as in the singular; as, *deer, means, news, odds, sheep, swine, trout, vermin*.

3. Write sentences containing the plural forms of these nouns:

shade	muscle	shelf	grotto
fox	bunch	piano	wharf
wolf	owl	lily	stuff
fife	buggy	bush	ratio
cargo	alley	valley	volcano

XI. GENDER OF NOUNS

1. Some nouns are always used as the names of *males*; as, *man, boy, king*.

2. Some nouns are always used as the names of *females*; as, *woman, girl, queen*.

DEFINITIONS:

Nouns that refer to males are said to be of the Masculine Gender, or Masculine.

Nouns that refer to females are said to be of the Feminine Gender, or Feminine.

3. Sex is a quality of objects; gender is a property of nouns. Objects have sex; nouns have gender.

4. Some nouns refer to objects of either sex; as, *child, pupil, parent*.

DEFINITION:

A noun that refers to objects of either sex is said to be of the Common Gender.

5. Some nouns refer to objects that have no sex; as, *book, table, tree*.

DEFINITION:

Nouns that refer to objects without sex are said to be of the Neuter Gender.

The word *neuter* means *neither*.

6. Write ten nouns that are of the masculine gender; ten that are of the feminine gender; ten that are of the common gender; ten that are of the neuter gender.

XII. EXERCISE IN GENDER OF NOUNS

Tell the gender of each noun in these sentences:

1. William and Mary love their father and mother.
2. The children love their parents.
3. Cousin Ada lives in Tennessee.
4. The boys went to live with their uncle and aunt.
5. Squirrels eat pecans, chestnuts, and grain.
6. Birds destroy many insects that would eat our fruit and vegetables.
7. In geography we learn about lakes, rivers, capes, and mountains.
8. In history we read about warriors, orators, and statesmen.
9. Painters, sculptors, engravers, and musicians are called artists.
10. Carpenters, plumbers, shoemakers, and blacksmiths are called artisans or mechanics.

XIII. EXERCISE IN GENDER OF NOUNS

1. Write the feminine corresponding to each of these masculine nouns:

uncle	grandfather	bachelor	king	poet
emperor	brother	prince	husband	rooster
male	nephew	sir	bridegroom	beau
lad	lord	actor	gander	hero
lion	Jew	son	heir	host

2. Use in sentences ten of the nouns that you have written.

XIV. A REVIEW

Write sentences containing these:

1. A proper noun, feminine, singular.
2. A common noun, feminine, plural.
3. A common noun, masculine, singular.
4. A proper noun, masculine, singular.
5. A common noun, common gender, singular.
6. A common noun, common gender, plural.
7. A common noun, neuter, singular.
8. A common noun, neuter, plural.
9. A proper noun, neuter, singular.
10. A common noun, feminine, singular.

XV. POSSESSIVE FORMS OF NOUNS

1. Notice these sentences:

1. This wagon belongs to John.
2. This is John's wagon.

2. In the second sentence the noun *John's* shows ownership or possession. This form of the noun is called the *possessive form*, or the *possessive case*.

RULES:

Singular nouns form the possessive case by adding the apostrophe (') and s to the name form; as, boy, boy's; girl, girl's.

Nouns in the plural, ending in s, form the possessive by adding the apostrophe (') only; as, boys, boys'; girls, girls'.

Nouns in the plural, not ending in s, form the plural by adding the apostrophe (') and s; as, men, men's; children, children's.

3. Point out the nouns in the possessive form in these sentences, and tell whether each is singular or plural:

1. The bird's nest was destroyed.
2. The birds' nests were destroyed.
3. This man sells boys' shoes.
4. They bought six dozen men's hats.
5. The man's feet were bitten by the frost.
6. Charles's feet were frozen.

4. Nouns have but two forms to denote relation to other words in the sentence; namely, the name form, and the possessive form.

5. Change these nouns to the possessive form, and then use them in sentences:

horse	deer	fox	child	aunt
uncles	parents	cousin	Mary	James

XVI. VERBS

1. We have seen that a sentence must have two parts; as,
Jewels sparkle.

2. One part of the sentence names the person or thing about which we say or assert something, and is called the *Subject*; the other part of the sentence asserts something of the person or thing named by the subject, and is called the *Predicate*.

DEFINITION:

A word that asserts is called a Verb.

3. When the sentence has but two words, the predicate is a verb.
4. When the predicate contains more than one word, the chief word in the predicate is a verb.
5. Point out the predicate and the predicate verb in each of these sentences:¹

1. Smoke ascends.
2. The smoke floats above the houses.
3. The river rises in the mountains.
4. The river flows through the valleys.
5. The river empties into the ocean.
6. Vapor comes from the ocean.
7. Vapor forms clouds.
8. The rain falls from the clouds.

XVII. WHAT VERBS DO

1. The chief office of the verb is to *assert*. A verb *asserts* something of the subject.

2. Some verbs *assert action* of the subject; as,

Farmers plow.

3. Some verbs *assert being* of the subject; as,

Men exist.

4. Some verbs *assert a state or condition* of the subject; as,

The babe sleeps.

Houses stand.

¹ NOTE: In analysis, the noun or pronoun in the subject may be called the *subject noun* or *subject pronoun*; the noun with its modifiers is *the subject*; the verb alone may be called the *predicate verb*; the verb taken with its modifiers is *the predicate*.

5. Some verbs *assert ownership*; as, John *owns* a horse; or John *has* a horse.

6. Some verbs *assert* of the subject an *attribute* expressed by an adjective or a noun following the verb; as,

1. John is *honest*.

2. Paul was *an apostle*.

7. Point out the verbs in these sentences and tell whether each asserts *action*, *being*, *condition*, *possession* or *ownership*, or an *attribute* of the subject:

1. Cats have large eyes.

2. The pupils of the cat's eyes dilate in the dark.

3. Cats see well in the dark.

4. The domesticated cat is a useful animal.

5. The fur of the cat is soft.

6. Cats catch mice.

7. That gray cat belongs to the old lady.

8. Write sentences illustrating the different classes of verbs.

XVIII. VERBS THAT TAKE OBJECTS

1. Some verbs that assert action require after them some word to complete the meaning; as,

Mary wrote the *letter*.

2. The word *letter* shows *what* Mary wrote. Without the word *letter* the sentence is not complete. The word *letter* is called the *object* of the verb *wrote*.

3. Note that certain words are placed before the noun *boys* to describe the boys that learn well, or to tell which boys learn well.

4. Notice these sentences:

1. We like good children.
2. We do not like bad children.

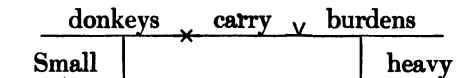
5. The words *good* and *bad* describe the children that we like or do not like. We say¹ that the words *good* and *bad* modify the meaning of the noun *children*, or limit the application of the noun *children*.

6. A word that modifies the meaning of a noun is an *Adjective*.

7. Point out the adjectives in these sentences:

1. Small donkeys carry heavy burdens.
2. Diligent pupils learn long, hard lessons.
3. A friendly boy has good friends.
4. Many people like ripe fruit.

8. The first sentence may be diagrammed thus:



PARTIAL ANALYSIS: The subject is "small donkeys"; the subject noun is "donkeys," modified by the adjective "small"; the predicate is "carry heavy burdens"; the predicate verb is "carry"; the object is the noun "burdens," modified by the adjective "heavy."

9. Diagram and analyze the other sentences.

¹ An adjective really describes the object represented by the noun, and not the noun.

XX. PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

1. Some verbs take an adjective after them to complete the meaning; as,

The apple is *ripe*.

2. The adjective *ripe* follows the verb *is* to complete the meaning, but it modifies the meaning of the noun *apple*, the subject of the sentence.

3. An adjective used in the predicate to modify the subject of the sentence is called a *Predicate Adjective*.

4. Point out the predicate adjectives in these sentences:

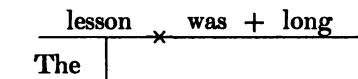
1. The lesson was long.

3. Some lakes are deep.

2. The time was short.

4. That lake is shallow.

5. The first sentence may be diagrammed thus:



PARTIAL ANALYSIS: *The lesson* is the subject; the subject noun is *lesson*, modified by the adjective *the*; the predicate is *was long*; the predicate verb is *was*; *long* is a predicate adjective.

6. Diagram and analyze the three other sentences.

7. Write and diagram three sentences containing predicate adjectives.

XXI. PREDICATE NOUNS

1. Sometimes a noun denoting the same person, place, or thing as the subject, follows the verb to complete the meaning; as,

Grady was an *orator*.

2. The noun *orator* denotes the same person as the subject

Grady, and is used in the predicate to complete the meaning. A noun so used is called a *predicate noun*.

3. Point out the predicate nouns in these sentences:

1. Horses are quadrupeds.
2. Snails are mollusks.
3. Lizards are reptiles.
4. Fowls are bipeds.

4. The first sentence may be diagramed thus:

Horses _x are + quadrupeds

5. Diagram and analyze the three other sentences.

6. Write and diagram four sentences containing predicate nouns.

XXII. USE OF THE POSSESSIVE FORM

1. Notice the office of the possessive form in these sentences:

1. Webster's orations are grand.
2. Ryan's poetry is sweet.
3. Grady's speeches are beautiful.
4. Poe's stories are weird.

2. Notice we do not say *all* orations are grand, but *Webster's* orations are grand. The word *Webster's* limits the application of the noun *orations*; that is, it modifies the meaning of the noun *orations* as used in this sentence. This is the ordinary function, or use, or office of an adjective. Hence we say that the possessive form, *Webster's*, fills the office of an adjective. See if you can find that each of the other possessive forms given fills a like office.¹

¹ The possessive form of a noun or pronoun usually, though not always, fills the office of an adjective. See Lesson XXX.

g. Its subject a proper noun, feminine, singular, and its object a common noun, common, plural.

h. Its subject a common noun, common, singular, and its object a common noun, neuter, singular.

i. Its subject a common noun, neuter, singular, modified by a possessive, and its object a common noun, neuter, singular, modified by an adjective.

XXIV. A REVIEW (CONTINUED)

1. Write a sentence having:

a. Its subject a proper noun, masculine, singular, and a predicate noun, common, masculine, singular.

b. Its subject a common noun, masculine, plural, and a predicate noun, common, common gender, plural.

c. Its subject a common noun, feminine, plural, and a predicate noun, common, common gender, plural.

d. Its subject a proper noun, feminine, singular, and a predicate noun, common, common gender, singular.

e. Its subject a proper noun, masculine, singular, and a predicate adjective.

f. Its subject a common noun, feminine, plural, and a predicate adjective.

g. Its subject a common noun, common gender, plural, and a predicate adjective.

h. Its subject a common noun, neuter, singular, and a predicate noun, common, neuter, singular.

2. State how each kind of sentence begins, and how each closes.

3. What nouns begin with capital letters?

XXV. PRONOUNS

1. Notice these two sentences:

1. Julia said that Julia had lost Julia's book.

2. Julia said that *she* had lost *her* book.

2. Note that *she* is used instead of the noun *Julia*, and *her* takes the place of the noun *Julia's*. *She* and *her* are called *pronouns*.

DEFINITION:

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

3. Point out the pronouns in these sentences:

1. The horse threw his rider.

2. The soldier used his sword.

3. I shall try to do my duty.

4. You will receive your reward.

5. They have gone to see their friend.

4. Fill these blanks with pronouns:

1. James met — friend at the corner, and — walked home together.

2. John's mother told — that if — would learn — lessons well, — would allow — to visit — cousins at — home in the country.

XXVI. GENDER OF PRONOUNS

1. Pronouns that refer to males are masculine; as, *he*, *him*.

2. Pronouns that refer to females are feminine; as, *she*, *her*.

3. Pronouns that refer to objects without sex are neuter; as, *it, its*.

4. Pronouns that refer to objects of either sex are in the common gender; as, *I, us, they*.

5. Tell which of these pronouns are masculine, which feminine, which neuter, and which common, in gender:

me	us	our	she
hers	their	it	ours
your	my	we	his
him	he	they	you
them	mine	theirs	yours

6. Write a sentence, using a masculine pronoun.

7. Write a sentence, using a feminine pronoun.

8. Write a sentence, using a neuter pronoun.

9. Write a sentence, using a pronoun of the common gender.

XXVII. NUMBER OF PRONOUNS

1. A pronoun that refers to one object is singular; as, *I, he*.

2. A pronoun that refers to more than one object is plural; as, *we, they*.

3. Tell which of the pronouns given under 5, in Lesson XXVI, are singular and which are plural.

4. Write a sentence containing a pronoun, masculine, singular.

5. Write a sentence containing a pronoun, feminine, singular.

6. Write a sentence containing a pronoun, neuter, singular.

7. Write a sentence containing a pronoun, common gender, plural.

XXVIII. PERSON OF PRONOUNS

1. Some pronouns always refer to the *person* or *persons speaking*; as, *I, we*. These pronouns are said to be in the *first person*.

2. Some pronouns always refer to the *person* or *persons spoken to*; as, *you, your*. These pronouns are said to be in the *second person*.

3. Some pronouns always refer to the *person* or *thing spoken of*; as, *he, they, it*. These pronouns are said to be in the *third person*.

4. *In grammar* we have *three persons*: the *first person*, or the person speaking; the *second person*, or the person addressed; and the *third person*, or the person spoken about.

5. Tell which of the pronouns given under 5, in Lesson XXVI, are in the first person, which are in the second person, and which are in the third person.

XXIX. PRONOUNS AS SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS

1. Learn from these sentences which pronouns may be used as *the subject* of a sentence, and which may be used as *the object* of a verb:

1. I see him.

5. You see her.

2. He sees me.

6. She sees you.

3. We see them.

7. He sees it.

4. They see us.

8. It sees him.

2. The first sentence may be diagramed thus:

I see him
 × v

3. Diagram and analyze the seven other sentences.
4. Write the seven pronouns that are used as *subject*.
5. Write the seven pronouns that are used as *object*.

RULES:

A pronoun used as the subject of a sentence is in the Nominative Case.

A pronoun used as the object of a verb is in the Objective Case.

XXX. POSSESSIVE FORMS OF PRONOUNS

1. Some pronouns have the possessive form; as, *my* book; *your* pencil.

2. The possessive form of the pronoun, like the possessive form of the noun, usually has the office of an adjective.

3. See which of the pronouns given under 5, Lesson XXVI, have the possessive form.

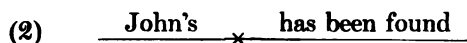
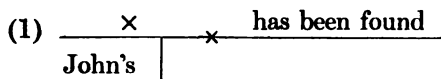
4. Some pronouns have three case forms; name them.

5. Study the office of each possessive form in these sentences:

1. My book was lost.
2. His book has been found.
3. They have learned their lessons.
4. We must learn our lessons.
5. John and I lost our ponies.
6. John's has been found.
7. Mine has gone.
8. He caught his.
9. I will catch mine.

6. Notice that sometimes the noun modified by a possessive form is omitted. Point out examples in the sentences given.

7. The 6th sentence may be diagrammed in these two ways:



8. Diagram (1) shows that the subject is the noun "pony" understood; the second diagram treats the possessive form "John's" as the subject.¹

9. Diagram the other sentences, and analyze them.

XXXI. PREDICATE PRONOUNS

1. Pronouns are correctly used in these sentences:

1. Who broke the slate?

a. It was I.

d. It was he.

b. It was we.

e. It was she.

c. It was you.

f. It was they.

2. Whose book is this?

a. It is mine.

d. It is his.

b. It is ours.

e. It is hers.

c. It is yours.

f. It is theirs.

2. The pronouns used after *is* and *was* in these sentences are *predicate pronouns*.

¹ NOTE TO TEACHERS: Sometimes no modified noun can be supplied; as in this sentence, *He is a friend of John's*. This evidently does not mean the same as, *He is a friend of John's friend*; for this could be true: He is a friend of John's, but he is an enemy of John's friend. Hence the possessive form "John's" is the object of the preposition "of."

3. The first sentence under 1 may be diagramed thus:

It was + I
 $\underline{\hspace{1.5cm}} \times \hspace{1.5cm} \underline{\hspace{1.5cm}}$

4. The first sentence under 2 may be diagramed thus:

It is + mine
 $\underline{\hspace{1.5cm}} \times \hspace{1.5cm} \underline{\hspace{1.5cm}}$

5. Diagram the other sentences.

RULE:

A Predicate Pronoun is in the Nominative Case.

6. Sometimes a possessive form is used as subject, object, or in the predicate.

XXXII. A REVIEW

Write a sentence having:

- a. Its subject a pronoun, first person, plural, common gender.
- b. Its object a pronoun, third, singular, masculine.
- c. As subject a pronoun, third, singular, feminine.
- d. Its subject a pronoun, second, plural, common.
- e. Its subject a pronoun, third, plural, and its object a pronoun, third, singular, feminine.
- f. A predicate pronoun, first, singular.
- g. A predicate pronoun, third, singular, feminine.
- h. Its subject a pronoun, first, plural, and its object a pronoun, third, plural.
- i. Its subject a pronoun, second, plural, and its object a pronoun, first, singular.
- j. Its subject a pronoun, third, plural, and its object a pronoun, second, plural.
- k. Its subject a noun modified by the possessive form of a pronoun, and its object a noun, modified by an adjective.

XXXIII. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

1. Notice the adjectives in these sentences:

1. Wednesday was a *hot* day.
2. Thursday was *hotter* than Wednesday.
3. Friday was the *hottest* day of the week.
4. November was a *cold* month.
5. December was *colder* than November.
6. January was the *coldest* month of the year.
7. John is a *tall* boy.
8. James is *taller* than John.
9. Henry is the *tallest* of the three boys.

2. How many days are referred to in the first sentence? In the second? In the third? How many months are referred to in the fourth sentence? In the fifth? In the sixth? How many boys are referred to in the seventh sentence? In the eighth? In the ninth?

3. Note that when we speak of just one object by itself we use *hot*, *cold*, *tall*; when we speak of *one of two* objects we use *hotter*, *colder*, *taller*; when we speak of *one of more than two* objects we use *hottest*, *coldest*, *tallest*.

4. In the first sentence the word *hot* expresses a quality of the day; in the second sentence *hotter* denotes a higher degree of that quality; in the third sentence, *hottest* expresses the highest degree of that quality.¹

DEFINITION:

Changes in the form of an adjective to express different degrees of quality are called Comparison.

¹ See Lesson XLV, Part Two.

5. The forms *hot*, *cold*, and *tall* are said to be in the positive degree; *hotter*, *colder*, and *taller* are said to be in the comparative degree; *hottest*, *coldest*, and *tallest* are said to be in the superlative degree.

6. Fill the blanks below:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
wise	_____	_____
deep	_____	_____
high	_____	_____
strong	_____	_____
low	_____	_____

XXXIV. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES (CONTINUED)

1. Write sentences using the comparative degree of these adjectives:

steep rough smooth weak mild

2. Write sentences using the superlative degree of these adjectives:

quiet short warm cool wild

3. Look at the adjectives that have been used and see what has been added to the positive to form the comparative, and what has been added to the positive to form the superlative.

RULE:

Most adjectives form the comparative by adding r or er to the positive, and the superlative by adding st or est to the positive.

4. Write the positive, comparative, and superlative of five adjectives not yet used.

XXXV. A SPELLING LESSON

1. Notice how we spell the three degrees of these adjectives:

cold	cold er	cold est
tall	tall er	tall est
hot	hot t er	hot t est

2. When a positive of one syllable ends in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled when *er* or *est* is added.

3. Spell the comparative and the superlative of each of these adjectives:

cheap	strange	sad	dear	red
green	sick	wet	poor	rich
thin	large	big	small	glad

RULE:

When a positive of two syllables¹ ends in y, preceded by a consonant, the y is changed to i before er or est; as holy, holier, holiest.

4. Spell the comparative and the superlative of each of these:

shy	icy	tidy	puny	sly
foggy	naughty	spry	cleanly	misty
heavy	happy	dry	pretty	wry

XXXVI. ADJECTIVES MODIFY PRONOUNS

1. Point out the adjectives in the following sentences and tell what each modifies:

¹ In *monosyllables* the *y* may be changed to *i* or may be retained; as dry, dryer, dryest; or dry, drier, driest.

1. He is honest.

2. They are industrious.

2. Note that *honest* is a predicate adjective, modifying the subject of the sentence, which is the pronoun *he*. What kind of adjective is *industrious*? What does it modify?

DEFINITION:

*An Adjective is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun.*¹

3. Point out the adjectives, state the degree of each, and tell what each modifies:

1. John is heavier than James.

2. You are taller than he.

3. I am older than she.

4. We are younger than they.

5. Mary is happy.

6. The pink is the sweetest flower in the nosegay.

7. Susan is a timid child.

8. She is candid.

9. The tallest tree in the forest fell.

XXXVII. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES (CONTINUED)

1. Most adjectives of more than one syllable form the comparative and superlative by prefixing *more* and *most* or *less* and *least* to the positive; as, *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*; *cheerful*, *less cheerful*, *least cheerful*.

¹ Strictly speaking, the adjective describes or points out the object represented by the noun or pronoun, and not the noun or pronoun.

2. Write the comparative and the superlative of each of these:

honest blissful agreeable particular heroic
magnanimous curious amiable dangerous valorous

3. Some adjectives form the comparative and superlative irregularly:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
good	better	best
little	less	least
bad	worse	worst
ill	worse	worst
evil	worse	worst
much	more	most
many	more	most

4. Write three sentences containing adjectives in the comparative degree; three containing adjectives in the superlative degree.

XXXVIII. ADJECTIVES IN A SERIES

1. Using the following nouns as subjects, write sentences having each a series of predicate adjectives:

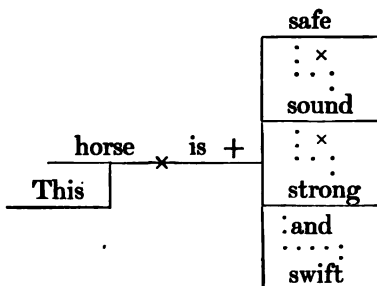
mountains valleys lakes currents trees
flowers buildings parks rabbit horse

EXAMPLE: This horse is safe, sound, strong, and swift.¹

2. Diagram the ten sentences that you have written.

¹ The teacher may call attention of pupils to this example of alliteration, and let them try to imitate it if they choose to do so.

EXAMPLE:



XXXIX. NOUNS IN A SERIES

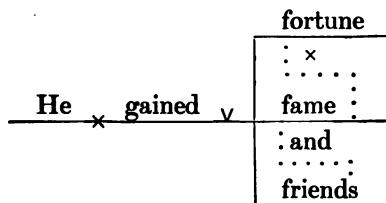
1. Using the following verbs, write sentences, each having nouns in a series as the object of the verb:

erect construct write see destroy
found lost caught desired gained

EXAMPLE: He gained fortune, fame, and friends.

2. Diagram and analyze the sentences you have written.

EXAMPLE:



XL. PRONOUNS IN A SERIES

1. Write ten sentences, using pronouns in a series as the subject in each.

2. Write ten sentences, using pronouns in a series as the object of a verb in each.

EXAMPLES: 1. He, she, and I were invited.

2. They invited him, her, and me.

3. Diagram and analyze the sentences you have written.

4. State the gender, person, number, and case of each pronoun used.

XLI. A REVIEW

1. Write a sentence containing the comparative of each of these adjectives:

glad	cheap	happy	industrious	truthful
sly	pretty	dangerous	little	much

2. Write a sentence containing the superlative of each of these adjectives:

beautiful	pleasant	juicy	shy	mad
agreeable	friendly	many	strong	big

XLII. ANALYSIS AND DIAGRAMMING

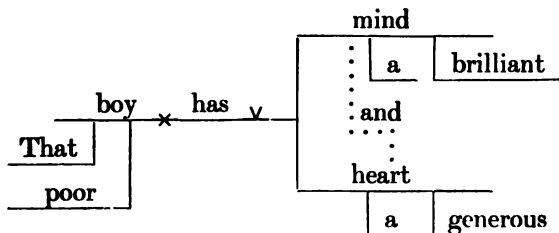
Analyze and diagram these sentences:

1. Skilful architects design beautiful buildings.

2. That tall stone building is a stately structure.

3. Washington was a great patriot.

4. That poor boy has a brilliant mind and a generous heart.



PARTIAL ANALYSIS: *That poor boy* is the subject; the rest of the sentence is the predicate. The subject noun is *boy*, modified by the adjectives *that* and *poor*. *Has* is the predicate verb having two objects, *mind* and *heart*, connected by *and*. *Mind* is modified by *a* and *brilliant*; *heart*, by *a* and *generous*.

5. Some rich men are indolent and ignorant.
6. The Rocky Mountains are steep and rugged.
7. The current is deep and swift.
8. That girl is happy.
9. Mary is a happy girl.
10. She is kind and thoughtful.
11. The angry lion shook his long, heavy mane and roared.
12. The deep, swift waters broke the dam and overflowed the valley.

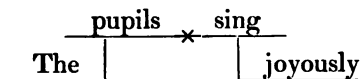
XLIII. ADVERBS

1. Study the office of the words in italics in these sentences:
 1. John writes *rapidly*.
 2. John writes *now*.
 3. John writes *here*.
2. What word tells *how* "John writes"? What word tells *when* he "writes"? What word tells *where* he "writes"?
3. The words *rapidly*, *now*, and *here* are called *adverbs*.
4. Adverbs modify verbs.
5. Point out the adverbs in these sentences:
 1. The pupils sing joyously.
 2. The lady walks gracefully.

3. Birds fly swiftly.

4. The pig eats greedily.

6. The first sentence may be diagrammed thus:



7. Diagram the other sentences, and tell what each adverb modifies.

8. Fill these blanks with adverbs:

1. Kate writes —.

2. Mary dances —.

3. They live —.

4. Mother spoke —.

5. The train moved —.

9. Diagram the sentences.

XLIV. ADVERBS (CONTINUED)

1. Study the office of the words in *italics* in these sentences:

1. Henry is *very* sad.

2. The poor man is *dangerously* ill.

3. The answer is *entirely* correct.

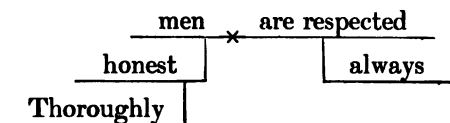
2. To what part of speech does *sad* belong? *ill*? *correct*?
What word modifies the adjective *sad*? *ill*? *correct*?

3. The words *very*, *dangerously*, and *entirely* are *adverbs*.

4. *Adverbs modify adjectives*.

5. Point out the adverbs in the following sentences:

1. Extremely cold winds blew.
2. Thoroughly honest men are always respected.
3. Highly refined people are very desirable companions.
4. We saw some curiously carved images.
6. The second sentence may be diagrammed thus.



PARTIAL ANALYSIS: *Thoroughly honest men* is the subject; *are always respected* is the predicate. The subject noun is *men*, modified by the adjective *honest*; *honest* is modified by the adverb *thoroughly*. The predicate verb is the verb phrase ¹ *are respected*, modified by the adverb *always*.

7. Diagram and analyze the other sentences.

XLV. ADVERBS (CONTINUED)

1. Study the office of the words in italics in these sentences:

1. Some boys write *too* rapidly.
2. This boy writes *very* slowly.

2. Observe that *too* modifies the adverb *rapidly*, and *very* modifies the adverb *slowly*. *Too* and *very* are adverbs.

3. Adverbs modify other adverbs.

DEFINITION:

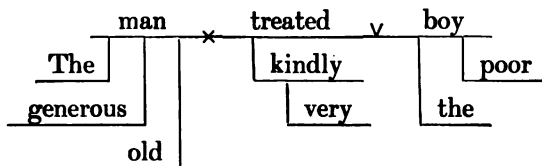
An Adverb is a word used to modify a Verb, an Adjective or an Adverb.

¹ See Lesson LXI, 3.

4. Point out the adverbs in these sentences, and tell what each modifies:

1. The lecture was highly instructive.
2. The winter was unusually cold.
3. The child cried extremely bitterly.
4. She spoke very hopefully.
5. Genuinely pious people are usually happy.
6. The generous old man treated the poor boy very kindly.

5. The last sentence may be diagrammed thus:



6. Diagram and analyze the other sentences.

XLVI. ADVERBS IN A SERIES

1. Write ten sentences; in each use one of these verbs modified by a series of adverbs:

write	ride	spoke	sing	chose
taught	recite	study	laugh	reads

2. Analyze and diagram the sentences you have written.

XLVII. PREPOSITIONS AND PHRASES

1. Study the office of the words in italics in these sentences:

1. We live *in* a cottage.

2. We live *on* a hill.

3. We live *by* the sea.

2. The words *in*, *on*, and *by* are *placed before* the nouns *cottage*, *hill*, and *sea* to *show* the *relation* of these nouns to the verb *live*.

3. Notice these sentences:

1. We sit *by* them.

2. We study *with* them.

4. Notice that *by* and *with* are *placed before* the pronoun *them* to *show* its *relation* to the verbs *sit* and *study*.

5. *In*, *on*, *by*, and *with* are prepositions.

DEFINITION:

A Preposition is a word placed before a Noun or Pronoun to show its relation to some other word.

6. The noun or pronoun following a preposition is called its *object*.

7. The preposition and its object form a *prepositional phrase*.

8. Point out the prepositions, the objects, and the prepositional phrases in these sentences:

1. The slopes of the hills are covered with trees.

2. The waves of the sea are caused by the winds.

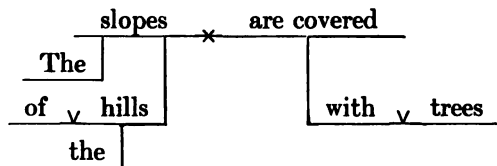
3. The sand on the beach is washed by the waves.

4. The grass in the meadows is sprinkled with flowers.

9. In the first sentence under 8, the phrase *of the hills* tells what *slopes* are meant, and the phrase *with trees* tells how they are covered. In other words, the phrase *of the hills* modifies the noun *slopes*, and the phrase *with trees* modifies the verb *are covered*.

Explain the office of each of the other phrases in the sentences under 8.

10. The first sentence under 8 may be diagrammed thus:



ANALYSIS: The subject is *The slopes of the hills*; the predicate is *are covered with trees*. The subject noun is *slopes*, modified by the adjective *the* and the prepositional adjective phrase *of the hills*. The predicate verb is the verb phrase *are covered*, modified by the adverb prepositional phrase *with trees*. The noun *hills* is the object of the preposition *of*. The noun *trees* is the object of the preposition *with*. The noun *hills* is modified by the adjective *the*.

11. Diagram and analyze the other sentences.

XLVIII. PHRASES AS ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

1. In the four sentences given under 8 in Lesson XLVII, tell what each phrase modifies.

DEFINITIONS:

A phrase that modifies a noun or pronoun is called an Adjectival Phrase.

A phrase that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, is called an Adverbial Phrase.

2. Point out the prepositions, the objects, and the phrases in the following sentences, telling whether each phrase is adjectival or adverbial:

1. Florida produces great quantities of delicious oranges.
 2. California is celebrated for luscious fruits.
 3. The water in some lakes is fresh.
 4. The water in Great Salt Lake is salt.
 5. Utah is the home of the Mormons.
 6. New York is the largest city in America.
3. Diagram and analyze these sentences.

XLIX. POSSESSIVE FORMS AND EQUIVALENT PHRASES

1. Notice these two sentences:

1. The name of the distinguished minister was Increase Mather.

2. The distinguished minister's name was Increase Mather.

2. Note that the possessive form *minister's* in the second sentence takes the place of the prepositional phrase, *of minister*, in the first.

3. Change phrases to possessive forms in these sentences, and then write the sentences:

1. The wings of the bird were clipped.
2. The nests of the birds were robbed.
3. The mothers of the boys were sorry.
4. The sisters of one boy cried.
5. These boys will rob the nests of no more birds.
6. The home of the girl is in New York.
7. The den of the animals was discovered.

EXAMPLE: The bird's wings were clipped.

4. Change the possessive forms to phrases in these sentences, and then write the sentences:

1. The cow's milk is a wholesome diet for children.
2. The otter's fur is soft and valuable.
3. Ostriches' plumes are imported from Africa.
4. The Eskimo often subsists on whales' blubber.
5. Ducks' and geese's feet are webbed.
6. The great prairies of the west were the bison's home.
7. The plains of Central Asia are probably the horse's native home.

EXAMPLE: The milk of the cow is a wholesome diet for children.

L. DIAGRAMING

1. Diagram and analyze the 14 sentences given in the last lesson.

2. Diagram and analyze the sentences as you wrote them, after changing them as directed.

LI. WORDS AND EQUIVALENT PHRASES

1. We have seen that a prepositional phrase may take the place of an adjective, an adverb, or a possessive form.

2. Copy the sentences given below, substituting words for phrases and phrases for words wherever you can do so.

EXAMPLE: An honest man is the noblest work of God. When changed it will read: A man of honesty is God's noblest work.

1. Care and sorrow are depicted on the man's countenance.
2. A studious boy will be a wise man.

3. A poor man may be a happy and useful man.
 4. They worshipped a calf of gold.
 5. Girls of modesty are beautiful.
 6. We always respect a man of truth.
 7. Golden bracelets encircled the woman's wrists.
 8. Fetters of iron bound the prisoner's hands.
 9. Henry Clay spoke eloquently.
 10. Lafayette fought bravely.
3. Diagram and analyze the ten sentences as given.
 4. Diagram and analyze them as you copied them.

LII. CONJUNCTIONS

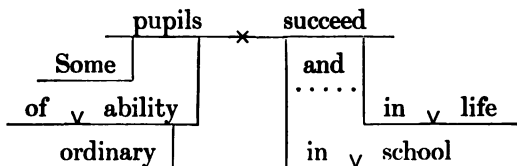
1. Study the office of the words in italics in these sentences:
 1. John is diligent *and* successful.
 2. Grass grows on the hills *and* in the valleys.
 3. Henry is energetic, *but* Samuel is indolent.
2. What does *and* connect in the first sentence? In the second? What does *but* connect in the third? *And* and *but* are *conjunctions*.

DEFINITION :

A Conjunction connects words, phrases, or other parts of a sentence.

3. Point out the conjunctions in these sentences:
 1. The lady has a sad but pleasant face.
 2. A teacher likes earnest and faithful pupils.
 3. Some bright but indolent boys fail in school and in life.
 4. Some pupils of ordinary ability succeed in school and in life.

4. The fourth sentence may be diagrammed thus:



In analysis say: The conjunction *and* connects the two adverbial prepositional phrases, *in school* and *in life*.

5. Diagram and analyze the other sentences.

LIII. USE OF CONJUNCTIONS

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell what each connects:

1. He and I were present.
2. They invited him and me.
3. The earth was all rest, and the air was all love.
4. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
5. She had grown up highly ornamental, but perfectly helpless and useless.
6. There never was a family more utterly without order, management, or system than Mrs. Pocket's.
7. Servants and children indulged in unending turmoil and conflict.
8. Trust in nothing but Providence and your own efforts.

NOTE: In 8, *but* is a preposition.

LIV. INTERJECTIONS

1. A single word used to denote sudden surprise, great excitement, or other intense feeling is called an *interjection*; as, *Ah!* *Alas!*

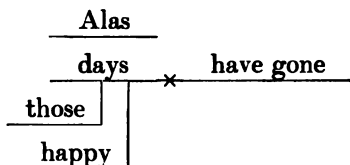
2. An exclamation point (!) is usually placed after an interjection.

3. The word *O* is always a capital letter. It is not usually followed by the exclamation point.

4. Point out the interjections in these sentences:

1. Alas! those happy days have gone.
2. He died, alas! in early youth.
3. Pshaw! he is silly.

5. The first sentence may be diagrammed thus:



In analysis say: *Alas* is an interjection, used to express strong feeling, but having no grammatical connection in the structure of the sentence.

6. Diagram and analyze the other sentences.

7. Write four sentences containing interjections.

LV. PARTS OF SPEECH

1. All the words in our language may be divided into these eight classes: Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

2. Words are divided into classes according to their meaning and use in sentences.

DEFINITION:

The classes into which words are divided according to meaning and use are called Parts of Speech.

3. State to what part of speech each word in these sentences belongs:

1. Nature is intensely quiet in the sunshine of a summer afternoon.

2. Busy hands and happy hearts bring chattering tongues and joyous laughter.

3. Labor and love are the body and soul of mankind.

4. Freedom and labor are the noblest prerogatives of mankind.

5. The life and exploits of Alexander formed a fertile subject for romance and poetry.

6. Our highest joys and deepest sorrows are closely allied.

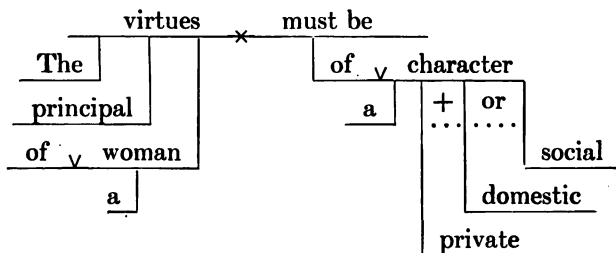
7. The stately ships sail on¹ to the haven under the hill.

8. The train moves on¹ to the station by the sea.

9. Many a carol, old and saintly, sang the minstrels.

10. The principal virtues of a woman must be of a private, domestic, or social character.

4. The last sentence may be diagrammed thus:



+ This mark + shows that or is here understood.

5. Diagram the other sentences.

¹ On is here an adverb.

LVI. TENSE OF VERBS

1. Notice that in some of these sentences the verb tells what is going on at the *present time*; in others, what happened in the *past*; and in others, what will occur in the *future*:

1. John *is* here to-day.
2. John *was* here yesterday.
3. John *will be* here to-morrow.
4. They *are preparing* their lesson. When?
5. They *prepared* their lesson. When?
6. They *will prepare* their lesson. When?

2. In grammar *tense* means *time*. Instead of saying *present time*, for example, we say *present tense*. The form of a verb that tells what is occurring *now* is said to be in the *present tense*; the form of a verb that tells what happened in the *past* is said to be in the *past tense*; and the form of a verb that tells what will occur hereafter is said to be in the *future tense*.

3. Tell in what tense each verb is in the six sentences given under 1.

4. Write six sentences, two having verbs in the present tense, two having verbs in the past tense, and two having verbs in the future tense.

LVII. FIVE FORMS OF VERBS

1. Many verbs in our language have five distinct forms. Notice in these sentences the five forms of the verb *write*:

1. They *write* letters.
2. He *writes* letters.
3. He *wrote* letters.

4. He has *written* letters.

5. He is *writing* letters.

2. Sometimes the first and second forms are called *Present Forms* because they *usually* tell what happens in the *present* time. The third may be called the *Past Form* because it *always* tells what happened in the *past*. The fourth is usually called the *Past Participle*, and the fifth, the *Present Participle*.

3. For the present we shall call these several forms thus: 1. Name Form¹; 2. S-Form; 3. Past Form; 4. Past Participle; 5. Present Participle.

4. Use in sentences the five forms of these: buy, speak, choose, gather, scatter.

LVIII. REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

1. Notice the five forms of each of these verbs:

<i>Name Form</i>	<i>S-Form</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>
learn	learns	learned	learned	learning
plow	plows	plowed	plowed	plowing
walk	walks	walked	walked	walking
reap	reaps	reaped	reaped	reaping

Notice that in each of these verbs the *past form* and the *past participle* are *alike*, and are formed by adding *ed* to the name form. Such verbs are called *regular verbs*.

2. Note the five forms of these verbs:

take	takes	took	taken	taking
give	gives	gave	given	giving
ride	rides	rode	ridden	riding

¹ This is the *name* of the word, by which it is known, referred to, found in the dictionary, etc. Hence it is called the *name form*.

Observe that these verbs do not form the past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the name form. These are called *Irregular Verbs*.

LIX. FIVE FORMS OF IRREGULAR VERBS

The list here given shows the five forms of forty-one irregular verbs. There are many more in our language; but they will not be difficult if these are learned perfectly.

<i>Name Form</i>	<i>S-Form</i>	<i>Past Form</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>
1. arise	arises	arose	arisen	arising
2. begin	begins	began	begun	beginning
3. bid	bids	bade	bidden	bidding
4. bite	bites	bit	bitten	biting
5. break	breaks	broke	broken	breaking
1. blow	blows	blew	blown	blowing
2. choose	chooses	chose	chosen	choosing
3. come	comes	came	come	coming
4. do	does	did	done	doing
5. eat	eats	ate	eaten	eating
1. fall	falls	fell	fallen	falling
2. fly	flies	flew	flown	flying
3. forget	forgets	forgot	forgotten	forgetting
4. forsake	forsakes	forsook	forsaken	forsaking
5. freeze	freezes	froze	frozen	freezing

<i>Name Form</i>	<i>S-Form</i>	<i>Past Form</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>
1. get	gets	got	gotten	getting
2. give	gives	gave	given	giving
3. go	goes	went	gone	going
4. grow	grows	grew	grown	growing
5. hide	hides	hid	hidden	hiding
1. know	knows	knew	known	knowing
2. lay	lays	laid	laid	laying
3. lie	lies	lay	lain	lying
4. ride	rides	rode	ridden	riding
5. rise	rises	rose	risen	rising
1. see	sees	saw	seen	seeing
2. set	sets	set	set	setting
3. sit	sits	sat	sat	sitting
4. sing	sings	sang	sung	singing
5. stand	stands	stood	stood	standing
1. steal	steals	stole	stolen	stealing
2. strive	strives	strove	striven	striving
3. take	takes	took	taken	taking
4. teach	teaches	taught	taught	teaching
5. tear	tears	tore	torn	tearing
1. tell	tells	told	told	telling
2. think	thinks	thought	thought	thinking
3. throw	throws	threw	thrown	throwing

<i>Name</i> <i>Form</i>	<i>S-Form</i>	<i>Past</i> <i>Form</i>	<i>Past</i> <i>Participle</i>	<i>Present</i> <i>Participle</i>
4. wear	wears	wore	worn	wearing
5. win	wins	won	won	winning
6. write	writes	wrote	written	writing

LX. NAME FORM, S-FORM, AND PAST FORM

1. Notice these sentences:

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------|
| 1. I write. | 5. They write. |
| 2. You write. | 6. John writes. |
| 3. He writes. | 7. One writes. |
| 4. We write. | 8. Two write. |

2. Observe that with *I* and all plural subjects we use *write*, the name form of the verb.

3. Observe, too, that with any subject in the third person, singular, we use *writes*, the s-form of the verb.

4. Notice these sentences:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I write <i>now</i> . | 3. He writes <i>to-day</i> . |
| 2. I wrote <i>yesterday</i> . | 4. He wrote <i>last week</i> . |

5. Note that we use *write* and *writes* in referring to *present* time, and *wrote* in referring to *past* time. For this reason *wrote* is called the *past form* of the verb.

6. Note also that we use *wrote* with any subject, singular or plural, first, second, or third person.

7. *Write* and *writes* are sometimes called the *present forms* of the verb, because they *usually* refer to present time. It is better for us now, however, to distinguish them as the *name form* and the *s-form* of the verb.

8. Fill each of the following blanks with the *name form* or the *s-form* of some verb given in Lesson LIX.

- | | |
|------------|---------------------|
| 1. I —. | 7. John —. |
| 2. You —. | 8. John and Henry—. |
| 3. He —. | 9. The man —. |
| 4. She —. | 10. The man —. |
| 5. It —. | 11. The child —. |
| 6. They —. | 12. The boys —. |

LXI. PAST FORM AND PAST PARTICIPLE FORM

1. Notice these sentences:

1. John *wrote* a letter.
2. John *has written* a letter.
3. John *had written* a letter.
4. A letter *was written* by John.
5. A letter *has been written* by John.
6. A letter *had been written* by John.
7. A letter *will be written* by John.

2. Note that *written* is combined with *has*, *had*, *was*, etc., and that *wrote* is not so used.

3. Such expressions as *has written*, *had written*, *was written*, etc., are called *verb-phrases*.

4. The past participle of the verb is often used as a part of the verb-phrase, but never by itself *as a verb*.¹

5. The past form is never used as a part of a verb-phrase.

¹ We shall see later that the past participle may be used by itself as an adjective modifier, but not as a verb. See 7, Lesson LXXIV, Part Two.

6. Fill each blank in these sentences with the past form or past participle of the verb *ride*. (See Lesson LIX.)

1. John — the horse.
2. John has — the horse.
3. John had — the horse.
4. The horse was —.
5. The horse has been —.
6. The horse had been —.

LXII. USE OF THE FIVE FORMS

1. Notice these sentences, each of which contains one of the five forms of the verb *write*.

1. Poets *write* for eternity.
2. That author *writes* for his cause.
3. Milton *wrote* Paradise Lost.
4. The Vision of Sir Launfal *was written* by Lowell.
5. Mary Johnston *is writing* a new book.

2. Write five sentences for each of the first five verbs given in Lesson LIX, using each of the five forms of each verb.¹ In this and in each of the next seven lessons, there will be twenty-five sentences.

LXIII. USE OF THE FIVE FORMS (CONTINUED)

Each paragraph in this section contains enough work for a lesson.

1. Using the five verbs in the second group in Lesson LIX, form sentences as directed in the last lesson.

¹ In the exercises in this and the next seven lessons, the teacher should encourage *variety* of expression. This will quicken thought, provoke originality, and stimulate invention. Of course the chief purpose here is to acquaint pupils with the various uses of these forms of the verb; but the other results mentioned may be accomplished incidentally.

2. Using the five verbs in the third group, proceed as in the last lesson.

3. Write sentences with the five forms of the verbs in the fourth group.

4. Use the verbs in the fifth group as directed in the last lesson.

5. Write sentences for the five verbs in the sixth group as in preceding lessons.

6. Write sentences, using the verbs in the seventh group as those in the preceding groups were used.

7. Using the verbs in the last group, write sentences as directed in preceding lessons.

LXIV. SENTENCE WRITING

Write a sentence:

1. Using a pronoun for the subject, and in the predicate the s-form of the verb *sing*, modified by an adverb.

2. Using for the subject a pronoun in the third person, singular, masculine, and in the predicate the s-form of the verb *sit*, modified by a phrase.

3. Using as the subject the singular of a neuter noun, modified by a phrase, and using in the predicate the perfect participle of the verb *begin* modified by a phrase.

4. Using in the subject a pronoun in the second person, and in the predicate the past form of the verb *sing* modified by an adverb, with a noun in the singular number, modified by an adjective, used as the object.

5. Using in the subject a proper noun in the feminine gender, in the predicate the past form of the verb *ride*, modified by an adverb.

6. Using in the subject a proper noun, masculine gender, and in the predicate the past form of the verb *sit* modified by a phrase.

7. Using in the subject a common noun, feminine, plural; in the predicate the past form of the verb *lay* modified by a phrase; and as an object a neuter plural noun modified by an adjective.

LXV. SENTENCE WRITING IN REVIEW

NOTE: In exercises that follow,

- (a) = using as a subject;
- (b) = using in the predicate;
- (c) = using as an object.

Write a sentence:

1. (a) Noun, plural, neuter, modified by a phrase; (b) past form of *fall* modified by an adverb and a phrase.

2. (a) Pronoun, third, singular, feminine; (b) past participle of verb *break*; (c) noun, plural, neuter, modified by an adjective.

3. (a) Noun, neuter, plural; (b) past participle of *freeze*, modified by an adverb.

4. (a) Noun, proper, masculine, singular; (b) past participle of *bite*, modified by a phrase.

5. (a) Noun, masculine, plural; (b) past form of *choose*; (c) noun, neuter, plural, modified by an adjective.

LXVI. WRITING SENTENCES IN REVIEW

Write sentences as follows:

1. (a) Pronoun, first, plural; (b) past form of *come*, modified by an adverb.

2. (a) Noun, neuter, singular, modified by an adjective; (b) perfect participle of *do*, modified by an adverb.

3. (a) Noun, masculine, third, plural; (b) past form of *eat*, modified by an adverb; (c) noun, neuter, plural, modified by an adjective.

4. (a) Noun, common, plural, modified by an adjective; (b) perfect participle of *fly*, modified by an adverb.

5. (a) Noun; (b) name form of *fly*, modified by an adverb and a phrase.

6. (a) Noun, neuter, singular, modified by an adjective and a phrase; (b) perfect participle of *give*, modified by a phrase.

7. (a) Noun, feminine, plural, modified by two adjectives; (b) present participle of *take*, modified by an adverb; (c) noun, neuter, singular, modified by an adjective and a phrase.

LXVII. *LIE, LAY; RISE, RAISE; SIT, SET*

1. Do not confuse the forms and uses of the verbs *lie* and *lay*, *rise* and *raise*, and *sit* and *set*.

To avoid such confusion, these two things are necessary:

1. To learn and remember the forms of these verbs; and
2. To know and follow this

RULE:

No form of lie, rise, or sit ever takes an object; all forms of lay, raise, and set¹ require objects.

2. Notice how the foregoing rule is applied in the following sentences:

1. The baby can sit alone.
2. The old man sits by the fire.
3. The children sat on the rug.

¹ The teacher will note exception in case of sun, moon, etc.

4. Having sat still for an hour, they became tired.
5. The bird sits on its nest.
6. The bucket sits on the table.
7. John sets the clock each morning.
8. Mary set the bucket on the table.
9. She has set the bucket on the shelf.
10. The woman sets the hen on the nest, and then the hen sits on the nest.
11. The mother sets the baby in the chair, and the baby sits in the chair.
3. Notice that no form of *sit* takes an object.
4. Point out the object of each form of *set*.
5. Write sentences illustrating the uses of *lie* and *lay*, and *rise* and *raise*.

LXVIII. ABBREVIATIONS

1. To *abbreviate* means to shorten.

Sometimes we use abbreviated forms of words; as, *Mon.* for *Monday*, *Gov.* for *Governor*.

2. An abbreviation usually begins with a capital letter, and is always followed by a period.

3. Make a list of fifty abbreviations, placing opposite each the full word for which it stands.

LXIX. CONTRACTIONS

1. Sometimes we form one word from two by omitting letters; as *don't* for *do not*, *hasn't* for *has not*.
2. Such forms as *don't* and *hasn't* are called contractions.

3. An apostrophe (') is always used to show where a letter has been omitted.

4. Write the contractions for these:

is not	are not	was not	were not
it is ¹	it is not	he is	she is
they are	you are	I will	we will
you will	they will	would not	could not
should not	has not	have not	had not
can not	do not	does not	did not
may not	might not	where is	here is
there is	let us	I am	we are

5. Write a sentence containing each of the contractions you have formed.

6. Do you know any words from which you can form such contractions as *aint* or *haint*? If not, do not use these forms.

LXX. USE OF CONTRACTIONS

1. Fill each blank in these sentences with *isn't* or *aren't*:

1. — he your friend?
2. — they your friends?
3. There — a doubt about his going.
4. There — many people in Alaska.
5. — those flowers beautiful?
6. — lightning and electricity the same?

2. Fill each of the following blanks with *doesn't* or *don't*:

1. He — like to study.

¹Two contractions for *it is*.

2. Why — John read better?
3. It — seem warmer.
4. The boy — know his lessons because he — study.
5. Studious pupils — often fail.
6. Success — come without effort.
7. Good men — fear the law.
8. Time and tide — wait for any man.

3. Fill each of these blanks with *wasn't* or *weren't*:

1. There — more than two left.
2. — you pleased with the result?
3. The victory — won by chance.
4. The lessons — very difficult.
5. The questions — answered correctly.
6. The price of the goods — too high.

LXXI. QUOTATIONS—DIRECT AND INDIRECT

1. Notice how these sentences are punctuated:

1. Hawthorne says, "No man who needs a monument ever ought to have one."

2. "No man who needs a monument ever ought to have one," says Hawthorne.

3. "No man who needs a monument," says Hawthorne, "ever ought to have one."

In all three sentences the exact words of Hawthorne are quoted. Hence they are called *direct quotations*. The words of a direct quotation are always inclosed in quotation marks, and are usually¹ set off by the comma.

¹ For the use of the colon, see Lesson LXXII, 4.

In the third sentence, the words *says* and *Hawthorne*, are inserted between the parts of the quotation. This is called a *divided quotation*. Observe that the inserted words are not included in the quotation marks, but are set off by the comma.

2. Notice these sentences:

1. Some one has said, "A fine and honorable old age is the childhood of immortality."

2. Some one said of a fine and honorable old age, that it is the childhood of immortality.

3. "Gray hairs seem to my fancy like the light of a soft moon, silvering over the evening of life," said Richter.

4. Richter said that gray hairs seemed to his fancy like the light of a soft moon, silvering over the evening of life.

Observe that in the first and third sentences, the *exact words* of the author are quoted. What kind of quotations are they?

Observe that in the second and fourth sentences the *same thoughts* are expressed as in the first and third, but the exact words of the author are not used. These are called *indirect quotations*. Indirect quotations are not inclosed in quotation marks.

3. Copy and punctuate the following sentences and explain to your teacher which contain direct and which indirect quotations:

1. Half the ills we hoard in our hearts said Barry Cornwall are ills because we hoard them.

2. The more a man denies himself, the more he shall obtain from God said Horace.

3. Fuller said of moderation, that it is the silken string running through the pearl-chain of all virtues.

4. If you do not hear reason, she will rap your knuckles said Franklin.

5. Shakespeare called brevity the soul of wit.
6. Acts, looks, words, steps, form the alphabet by which you may spell character says Lavater.
7. Mason said the soul that truly fears and loves God will always have light and peace and strength from on high.
4. Copy again the sentences given under 3, this time changing the direct quotations to indirect, and the indirect to direct, and punctuating correctly.

LXXII. QUESTIONS—DIRECT AND INDIRECT

1. Notice these sentences:

1. The teacher asked, "When did Columbus discover America?"

2. The teacher asked when Columbus discovered America.

The first sentence contains a direct question; the second, an indirect question. Observe the difference in the order of the words, in the punctuation, and in the use of capitals.

2. Copy the following sentences, use punctuation marks and capitals correctly, and explain to your teacher which sentences contain direct questions, and which indirect:

1. The teacher asked what were the chief occupations of the Indians

2. The poor woman cried what shall I do

3. Hawthorne asks if truth is a fantasy, which we are to pursue forever and never grasp

3. Copy again the sentences given under 2, changing the direct questions to indirect, and the indirect to direct, and using capital letters and punctuation marks correctly.

4. If a direct quotation or a direct question is introduced by such a word as *this*, *these*, *thus*, or *as follows*, it is preceded by the colon instead of the comma; as,

1. Of all sad words of tongue or pen,

The saddest are these: "It might have been!"

2. Jefferson said that if he could begin his administration again, the first question he would ask respecting a candidate for office would be this: "Does he use ardent spirits?"

5. Write two sentences containing direct questions; two containing indirect questions.

LXXIII. LETTER WRITING

1. Study carefully the form of the letter given on page 73.

2. A letter contains these five parts:

i. The *Heading*, which shows where and when the letter is written;

ii. The *Address*, which gives the name, the title, and place of business or residence of the person to whom the letter is written;

iii. The *Salutation*, which consists of some appropriate words of respect or affection;

iv. The *Body of the Letter*, which contains the message to be sent;

v. The *Conclusion*, which consists of some appropriate words of respect or affection and the signature of the writer. Point out the five parts of the letter given on page 73.

3. Copy neatly the letter on page 73, observing carefully the punctuation, use of capitals, spacing for margins, etc.

*Manitou, Colorado,
July 26, 1904.*

Miss Mary E. Johnson,
Little Rock, Ark.

My very dear Teacher:

You will of course remember telling us in your geography class that the tops of high mountains are often covered with snow, even in the middle of the summer. Well, I now confess that it was right hard for me, in the middle of a hot southern summer, to believe that there was snow anywhere. Yesterday, however, I had an experience that removes all my doubts on this subject.

I went with Uncle Will and Cousin John to the top of Pike's Peak. I shall wait till I see you to try to tell you how much I enjoyed the grand scenery, and what peculiar sensations I felt in breathing on the summit of the Peak. But I must tell you now that we were caught in a big snow-storm. Think of it! A snow-storm on the 25th of July!

We shall be home before the opening of schools.

I hope that you are enjoying a pleasant vacation.

Your affectionate pupil,

FRANK BROWN.

The *Superscription* is the address written on the envelope.

NOTE: The teacher should show pupils how to fold a letter, how to write the superscription, etc.

LXXIV. LETTER WRITING

1. Write a letter to the publisher of some periodical that you wish to read, and inclose the amount of a year's subscription.
2. Write a letter to some friend, giving an account of a trip you have recently taken, or of a picnic you have attended, or of some river, lake, mountain, or noted building you have seen.
3. Write a letter to some one at a distance, describing the natural scenery, the products, the occupations of the people, etc., about your home.
4. Write a letter to some friend or relative, telling about your school, including the building, grounds, teachers, pupils, your studies, kinds of recreations, libraries, etc.
5. Write a letter to your teacher, telling briefly the most important facts you have learned this year in grammar.

NOTES TO TEACHER: 1. This kind of exercise may be extended as local conditions will permit.

2. Each letter should be written neatly and in correct form, and should be folded and inclosed with as much care as if it were to be posted.

LXXV. EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS

Analyze and diagram these sentences:

1. Coral is the skeleton of polyps. Polyps are very small sea animals. Many polyps usually live in one cluster or colony.
2. Gretna Green is a village in Scotland. Many runaway marriages were formerly celebrated in Gretna Green.
3. The Gila¹ Monster is found in the region of the Gila

¹ Pronounced *Hē'la*.

River. It is the largest lizard in North America. It is poisonous. It sometimes attains the length of three feet.

4. Date trees grow in the valley of the Nile. The fruit of the date tree is an important article of food.

5. On the west coast of Africa are found many large and fierce apes. The largest and fiercest of these is the gorilla. Smaller apes and monkeys are found in all parts of the continent.

6. Every animal has a special means of defence. The cow gores with her horns. The horse kicks and bites. The deer runs swiftly. The frog dives into the water.

7. All animals engage in a struggle for existence. Insects in southern Africa sting and kill cattle. Tigers pounce upon deer and devour them. Many birds feed on worms and insects. Owls kill and eat field-mice.

8. The eight great industries of civilized man are agriculture, herding, fishing, lumbering, mining, manufacturing, trade, and transportation. The first five furnish raw materials. The sixth converts raw materials into useful products. Trade and transportation distribute raw materials and manufactured products. Trade and transportation constitute commerce.

9. Moisture in the form of vapor rises into the atmosphere from the surface of the ocean. This process is evaporation. Vapor mingles with the atmosphere and is carried about by the winds. Vapor is chilled by rising into a higher atmosphere or by being carried into a colder region. Cold changes vapor into raindrops, snowflakes, or hailstones. These fall to the earth and sink into the ground in the form of water. The water in the ground finds its way to the rivers. The rivers carry it back to the ocean. It rises again in the form of vapor and starts once more on its perpetual round.

*Forms of Analysis.*¹

1. This is a simple declarative sentence.² Why declarative? The subject is the noun *coral*; the predicate is *is the skeleton of polyps*. The predicate verb is *is*, completed by the predicate noun *skeleton*, modified by the adjective *the* and the adjectival prepositional phrase *of polyps*.

5. This is a simple declarative sentence.² Tell why declarative. The subject is *many large and fierce apes*; the predicate is *are found on the west coast of Africa*. The subject noun is *apes*, modified by the adjectives *many*, *large*, and *fierce*; *large* and *fierce* are connected by the conjunction *and*. The predicate verb is the verb phrase *are found*, modified by the adverbial prepositional phrase, *on the west coast of Africa*. The base word of this phrase is the noun *coast*, modified by the adjectives *the* and *west* and the adjectival prepositional phrase *of Africa*.

6. This is a simple declarative sentence.² Tell why declarative. The subject is *Every animal*; the predicate is *has a special means of defence*. The subject noun is *animal*, modified by the adjective *Every*. The predicate verb is *has*, completed by the object *a special means of defence*. The object noun is *means*, modified by the adjectives *a* and *special* and the adjectival prepositional phrase *of defence*.

9. This is a simple declarative sentence.² Why declarative? The subject is *Moisture in the form of vapor*; the predicate is *rises into the atmosphere from the surface of the ocean*. The subject noun is *moisture*, modified by the adjectival prepositional phrase *in the form of vapor*, the base word of which is the noun *form*, modified by the adjective *the* and the adjectival prepositional phrase *of vapor*. The predicate verb is *rises* modified by the adverbial prepositional phrases *into the atmosphere* and *from the surface of the ocean*. The base word of the

¹ The forms of analysis which follow are designed to be merely suggestive. After pupils have had some practice, it is not best to require them to follow any one form exclusively.

² See sentences 1, 5, 6, and 9, on pages 74 and 75.

former phrase is the noun *atmosphere*, modified by the adjective *the*; the base word of the latter phrase is the noun *surface*, modified by the adjective *the* and the adjectival prepositional phrase *of the ocean*, the base word of which is the noun *ocean*, modified by the adjective *the*.

LXXVI. EXERCISE IN PARSING

Classify as parts of speech all the words in the sentences given in Lesson LXXV, and give the properties of each so far as you have learned them.

LXXVII. GENERAL REVIEW

1. Mention and define four classes of sentences, and tell how each begins and what mark follows each.

2. Define the subject of a sentence; the predicate.

3. What parts of speech have been used as the subject? In what ways have these parts of speech been modified?

4. What part of speech does the predicate always contain? How is this part of speech modified? What other parts of speech have been used in the predicate?

5. Define noun; common noun; proper noun; initial; abbreviation. In which of these do we use capitals?

6. Explain what you mean by number; by gender; by person. Give examples.

7. Explain how the possessive case of nouns is formed in each of three classes of nouns. The possessive form usually has the function of what part of speech?

8. What is the essential office of the verb? Name some classes of verbs. By what may a verb be modified?

9. Explain what is meant by a predicate adjective; a predicate noun; an object of a verb.

10. Define adjective. What is comparison? How many degrees? Explain how they are formed in different classes of adjectives.

11. What is an adverb? What else is sometimes used as the equivalent of an adverb?

12. What is a preposition? A phrase? The object of a preposition? A prepositional phrase fills the offices of what parts of speech?

13. What is a conjunction? An interjection? A contraction?

14. What are parts of speech? Name them.

15. What is a quotation? A direct quotation? An indirect quotation? How is a direct quotation inclosed? How usually set off? How set off when formally introduced?

16. State difference between a direct and an indirect question.

17. Name and explain the five parts of a letter.

PART TWO

I. SENTENCES CLASSED AS TO MEANING

1. Study these sentences carefully, and tell which make statements, which ask questions, which convey commands, and which express feeling:

1. A good name is rather to be chosen than great riches.
2. How much better it is to get wisdom than gold!
3. A word fitly spoken is like apples of gold in pictures of silver.
4. My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.
5. Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways, and be wise.
6. How long wilt thou sleep, O sluggard? When wilt thou arise out of thy sleep?
7. Even a child is known by his doings, whether his work be pure, and whether it be right.
8. The eyes of the Lord are in every place, beholding the evil and the good.

2. According to their meaning, sentences are divided into these classes: *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, and *exclamatory*.

3. A *Declarative sentence* either asserts or denies something; that is, it makes either an affirmative or a negative statement.

4. An *Interrogative sentence* asks a question.

5. An *Imperative sentence* conveys a request, an order, a command, an entreaty, or a prayer.

6. An *Exclamatory sentence* expresses surprise, wonder, or other strong or sudden feeling.

7. Classify the eight sentences given under 1.

8. Write two sentences of each of the four classes.

II. SIMPLE SENTENCES AND COMPOUND SENTENCES

DEFINITION:

A Proposition is a Subject taken with its Predicate.

1. Some sentences contain only one proposition; as,

1. Washington was a general.

2. Webster was an orator.

2. Some sentences contain more than one proposition; as,

1. Washington was a general, but Webster was an orator.

2. Cæsar was dead, the senators were dispersed, and all Rome was in confusion.

Tell how many propositions are contained in each of these sentences, and point them out.

3. A *Simple sentence* contains a single proposition.

4. A *Compound sentence* contains two or more propositions, each of which, when standing alone, expresses a complete thought.

5. Name the simple sentences given above; also, the compound sentences.

6. The propositions that compose a compound sentence are called *members*.

7. Which of the following sentences are simple and which compound, and why?

1. A wicked man can not be truly brave.
 2. Six days shalt thou labor.
 3. Good deeds will ring clear through Heaven.
 4. The night was dark, and the wind was cold.
 5. The rain is over, the clouds are divided in the heavens, and over the green hills flies the inconstant sun.
 6. The bird is dead; it can not sing.
 7. The clouds present to the attentive observer many interesting objects of contemplation.
 8. The mocking-bird loses little of the power or sweetness of his song by confinement.
 9. Hamlet was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.
 10. Man has his will, but woman has her way.
 11. I have a body, and I am a mind.
8. Write two simple sentences; two compound sentences.
 9. Analyze the sentences under 7.

NOTE: For suggestive forms of analysis, see Appendix A.

III. COMPOUND SENTENCES AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

1. A compound sentence contains two or more independent propositions; as,

Life is short, and art is long.

Notice that these two propositions are of equal rank; that neither is dependent upon the other; that neither modifies the other; and that each will make sense by itself. Such are the propositions that form a compound sentence. What are they called?

2. Now notice these sentences:

1. Iron bends easily *when it is hot*.
2. I know the boy *who got the book*.
3. We wear heavy wraps *when the weather is cold*.
4. All pupils *who study* learn.

Note carefully the proposition in italics in each sentence. Omit it and observe the result.

The first sentence will then be *Iron bends easily*. This is not generally true. The proposition in italics tells *when* "iron bends easily," and in this way modifies the meaning of the verb *bends*. It therefore does the work of an *adverb*.

The fourth sentence will be: *All pupils learn*. This is not true. The proposition *who study* tells which pupils learn. It modifies the meaning of the noun *pupils*. This is the work of an *adjective*.

Note the other propositions in italics. Each of them does the work of some part of speech. A proposition of this kind is called a *subordinate proposition*, or a *subordinate clause*.

DEFINITION :

A Subordinate clause is a proposition used to perform the office of a single part of speech in a sentence.

3. A complex sentence contains one or more subordinate clauses.

4. Notice that each sentence given under 2 contains two propositions. In each sentence, one proposition is used to do the work of some part of speech, and the other is not so used. In a complex sentence a proposition not used to do the work of a part of speech is called the *Principal proposition*, or the *Principal clause*.

5. Point out the principal clause and the subordinate clause in each of the sentences under 2.

IV. SENTENCES CLASSED AS TO FORM

1. In Lesson I we learned that *in regard to meaning*, sentences are divided into four classes. What four? Define each.

2. In Lessons II and III we found that *in regard to form*, there are three classes of sentences. Name the three classes. Define each.

3. Classify the following sentences as to form and as to meaning:

1. The greatest battle of the Civil War was fought at Gettysburg.

2. Water expands when it freezes.

3. Iron expands when it is heated.

4. A simple sentence contains but one proposition.

5. A compound sentence contains two propositions, but they are both independent.

6. A complex sentence contains two propositions, one of which is dependent.

7. James Oglethorpe founded Georgia for the oppressed.

8. We can not trust people who will tell falsehoods.

9. We hope, we aspire, we resolve, we trust.

10. Our thoughts must rise, or we must fall.

4. Write three simple sentences; three compound sentences; three complex sentences.

5. Analyze the sentences given under 3.

V. THE ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE

1. We have learned that every sentence must have at least two parts, the *subject* and the *predicate*; as,

Planets revolve.

In this sentence, the word *Planets* names that of which something is asserted; hence it is the *subject*. The word *revolve* asserts something of the objects represented by the subject; hence it is the *predicate*.

The subject and the predicate are called the *essential parts* of the sentence. Why? Because every sentence must have these two parts or elements.

2. In some sentences an *object* is required; as,

Merchants sell goods.

In this sentence the word *goods* tells what the merchants sell. It is necessary to complete the meaning. It names the thing affected by the act expressed in the verb *sell*. Hence it is called the *object* of the verb. The object may be classed with the subject and the predicate as one of the *three principal elements* of the sentence; but it can not be called an *essential element*, as it is not found in every sentence.

3. The principal elements of the sentence are the *subject*, the *predicate*, and the *object*.¹

4. All other important parts of the sentence modify in some way one or another of the principal elements, and are therefore called *modifiers*. Besides the principal elements and the modifiers, there are connectives, interjections, and expletives, or introductory words.

¹ Some authors treat the *object* as a *modifier of the predicate verb*.

5. Modifiers may be classed as word-modifiers, phrase-modifiers and clause-modifiers.

6. All modifiers of nouns and pronouns are classed as adjective-modifiers; and all modifiers of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are classed as adverb-modifiers.

7. Point out the principal elements, the modifiers, and the connectives in these sentences:

1. The eye is the window of the soul.¹
2. On the bosom of the water floated a dying swan.
3. A dainty plant is the ivy green.¹
4. The pyramids of Egypt have stood for thirty centuries.
5. Feudalism did not exist before the tenth century.
6. A changeful thing is the human heart.
7. Our highest joys and deepest sorrows are closely allied.
8. Idleness is the Dead Sea which swallows up all virtue.
9. There is a portrait of Lincoln in the library.

The word *there* in the ninth sentence is an *expletive*. It may be omitted without injury to the sentence, but the order of the words will be changed, thus: A portrait of Lincoln is in the library.

8: Analyze the sentences given under 7.

VI. SIMPLE SENTENCES CONTAINING COMPOUND ELEMENTS

1. Notice these sentences:

1. Jefferson and Adams were statesmen.
2. Webster, Clay, and Calhoun were orators.
3. Air, water, and food are essential to life.

¹ A predicate noun is a modifier of the subject.

What is the subject of the first sentence? Of the second? Of the third? How many nouns in the first? In the second? In the third? A subject composed of two or more nouns or pronouns is called a *compound subject*.

2. Notice these sentences:

1. The soldiers fought, bled, and died.
2. The children played, sang, and danced.
3. Talmage wrote, preached, and lectured.

What is the predicate in the first sentence? In the second? In the third? How many verbs in the first predicate? In the second? In the third? A predicate composed of two or more verbs is called a *compound predicate*.

3. Note that each of the sentences given under 1 and 2 contains but one proposition. What kind of sentences are they?

4. A simple sentence contains but one subject and one predicate, but either or both of these may be compound.

5. Write three simple sentences containing compound subjects; three containing compound predicates; three containing compound subjects and compound predicates.

VII. SIMPLE SENTENCES CONTAINING COMPOUND ELEMENTS (CONTINUED)

1. Notice these sentences:

1. Phillips Brooks delivered sermons, lectures, and addresses.
2. We study arithmetic, geography, and grammar.

What is the object of the verb in the first sentence? In the second? How many nouns are in each object?

An object composed of two or more nouns or pronouns is called a *compound object*.

2. We have now learned that any one of the three principal elements of a sentence may be compound.

3. Notice the modifiers in these sentences:

1. Wise and patriotic men established our government.
2. The American soldiers fought bravely and successfully.
3. They won numerous and important victories.

What is the subject of the first sentence? How is it modified? What is the predicate verb of the second sentence? How is it modified? What is the object in the third sentence? How is it modified?

4. Any one of the three principal elements of a sentence may have a *compound modifier*.

5. Write two sentences each containing a compound modifier of the subject; two, each containing a compound modifier of the predicate; two, each containing a compound modifier of the object.

VIII. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

1. What is a complex sentence? What is a subordinate clause? A principal clause? See Lesson III.

2. Study the use of the subordinate clause in each of these sentences:

1. A pupil who is studious will learn.
2. No life can be well ended that is not well spent.
3. One who laughs at a bodily deformity is too dull to see the deformity of his own soul.
4. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
5. He who can implant courage in the human soul is its best physician.
6. Attention is the stuff of which memory is made.

In the first sentence, what proposition tells the kind of *pupil* that *will learn*? To what part of speech does *pupil* belong? What part of speech modifies a noun? The subordinate clause is used as if it were what part of speech?

Answer similar questions for each of the other sentences.

3. Each of the subordinate clauses in the foregoing sentences is used as an adjective. These clauses may therefore be called adjective clauses.

DEFINITION:

An Adjective Clause is a proposition used to perform the office of an adjective.

4. Write five sentences, each containing an adjective clause.

5. As to form, to what class do the sentences given under 2 belong? Do the five sentences you have written belong to the same class? Why?

6. Analyze the sentences given under 2.

IX. ADVERB CLAUSES

1. Study the office of the subordinate clause in each of these sentences:

1. When pleasure calls, we listen.

2. You have grown since I saw you.

3. Where you now sit, the rank thistle once nodded in the wind.

4. You may call upon me whenever you need my services.

5. God overthrew the children of Israel in the wilderness because He¹ was displeased with them.

6. If spring has no blossoms, autumn will have no fruit.

¹ A noun or pronoun representing Deity should begin with a capital letter.

In the first sentence, what tells when *we listen*? Of what part of speech is *listen*? What part of speech modifies a verb? The subordinate clause fills the office of what part of speech?

Answer like questions in regard to each of the other sentences.

2. In the sentences given, each of the subordinate clauses fills the office of an adverb. These clauses may therefore be called *adverb clauses*.

DEFINITION:

An Adverb Clause is a proposition used to perform the office of an adverb.

3. Write five sentences, each containing an adverb clause.

4. As to form, to what class do the sentences given under 1 belong? Do the five sentences you have written belong to the same class? Why?

5. Analyze the sentences given under 1.

X. NOUN CLAUSES

1. Study the use of the subordinate clause in each of these sentences:

1. I believe that John is honest.
2. The Scriptures teach that the soul lives forever.
3. The Bible says, "God is love."
4. "Where is thy brother?" smote the ears of guilty Cain.
5. That the earth is flat is no longer believed by intelligent people.

In the first sentence, which words tell what *I believe*? What is the object of *believe*? What part of speech is usually the object of a verb? The subordinate clause, *that John is honest*, fills the office of what part of speech?

In the fourth sentence, what is the subject of the verb *smote*? What part of speech is usually the subject of the verb? The subordinate clause, *Where is thy brother?* fills the office of what part of speech?

Answer similar questions in regard to each of the other sentences.

2. As the subordinate clauses in the sentences given fill the office of nouns, they may be called noun clauses.

DEFINITIONS:

A Noun Clause is a proposition used to perform the office of a noun.

A Subordinate Clause is a proposition used to fill the office of an adjective, an adverb, or a noun.

3. Write five sentences, each containing a noun clause.

4. As to form, to what class do the sentences given under 1 belong?

5. Do the sentences you have written belong to the same class? Why?

6. When the subordinate clause in a complex sentence fills the office of a noun, the *entire sentence* constitutes the *principal clause*.

7. Point out the subordinate clause and the principal clause in each sentence given under 1. Analyze the sentences in full.

XI. CLASSIFYING SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

1. Point out the principal clauses and the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, and tell whether each subordinate clause is an adverb clause, an adjective clause, or a noun clause, and tell why:

1. A hothouse is a trap that catches sunbeams.
 2. Boys often know where the birds build their nests.
 3. He failed at the examination because he had not studied.
 4. How he died is not known.
 5. He died as he had lived.
 6. The girl who is always laughing shows a want of sense.
 7. I have not seen him since he arrived.
 8. How he succeeded is a mystery.
 9. I have lost the money which you gave me.
 10. The lady whom you met has gone.
 11. I shall see you when you come.
 12. Brutus said he was ambitious.
2. Write two sentences containing noun clauses; two containing adjective clauses; two containing adverb clauses.

XII. CLASSIFYING SENTENCES

1. Classify these sentences (1) as to form, and (2) as to meaning:

1. Hear¹ instruction and be¹ wise.
2. Hatred stirreth up strifes, but love covereth all sins.
3. When pride cometh, then cometh shame.
4. Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit [goeth] before a fall.
5. Put¹ away from thee a froward mouth, and perverse lips put¹ far from thee.

¹The subject of this verb is *thou* (or you) understood.

6. A fool's mouth is his destruction, and his lips are the snare of his soul.

7. Who can say, I have made my heart clean?

8. If thine enemy be hungry, give him bread to eat.

9. If thou faint in the day of adversity, thy strength is small.

10. A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words stir up anger.

11. A fool despiseth his father's instruction.

12. How much better it is to get wisdom than gold!

2. Analyze the sentences given under 1.

XIII. USE OF WORDS, PHRASES, AND CLAUSES

1. Substitute phrases for the adjectives printed in *italics* in these sentences:

1. An *honest* man is respected.

2. A *diligent* pupil will learn.

3. *Industrious* people prosper.

4. *Truthful* boys have our confidence.

5. *Ambitious* men achieve great results.

6. *Energetic* people overcome great difficulties.

7. A *beautiful* scene broke upon our view.

8. *Kind* words are appreciated by all.

9. We all admire *polite* people.

10. The *righteous* man will not be forsaken.

EXAMPLE: A man *of honesty* is respected.

2. Substitute clauses for the same adjectives.

EXAMPLE: A man *who is honest* is respected.

3. As to form, to what class do the ten given sentences belong? When phrases are substituted for the adjectives, to what class do the sentences belong? To what class, when clauses are substituted? Why?

4. Write five simple sentences containing adjectives, and then change them to complex sentences by substituting clauses for the adjectives.

XIV. WORDS, PHRASES, AND CLAUSES USED AS MODIFIERS

1. We have now learned that modifiers may be words, phrases, or clauses.

2. Point out all the words used as modifiers in these sentences:

1. A prudent man avoids evil company.
2. A persevering pupil will learn difficult lessons.
3. Happy hours are spent in literary pursuits.
4. Delightful friendships are formed in school-days.
5. Useful employments furnish pleasant occupation.
6. A wealthy man may be an unhappy man.
7. A studious boy will become a wise man.

3. Rewrite these sentences substituting phrase-modifiers for word-modifiers where you can do so.

EXAMPLE: A man *of prudence* will avoid the company *of the evil*.

4. Write the sentences again, using clause-modifiers where you can do so.

EXAMPLE: A man *who is prudent* avoids company *that is evil*.

5. Analyze the sentences given under 2.

6. (1) Write three sentences containing word-modifiers; (2) substitute phrase-modifiers; (3) substitute clause-modifiers.

XV. THE PARTS OF SPEECH

1. According to their use in the sentence, words are divided into these eight classes: *nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.*

2. A *noun* is a name; as

The love of money is the root of all evil.

3. A *pronoun*¹ is a word used instead of a noun; as,

The evil that men do lives after them.

4. A *verb* is a word that *asserts, tells, or asks*; as,

The billows roll.

5. An *adjective* is a word used to modify the meaning or application of a noun or a pronoun; as,

Studious pupils have good lessons.

6. An *adverb* is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb; as,

The soldiers fought gallantly.

7. A *preposition* is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word in the sentence; as,

They live in a cottage by the sea.

8. A *conjunction* is a word used to connect words, phrases, or clauses;² as,

Women and children were protected.

9. An *interjection* is a word used to show sudden emotion, surprise, wonder, or other strong feeling; as,

¹ The distinction between a noun and a pronoun is this: A noun represents an object *by* naming it; a pronoun represents an object *without* naming it.

² Sometimes a word that is ordinarily a conjunction serves only to introduce a subordinate clause. It is then a mere introductory word.

Alas! the opportunity was lost.

10. Write a sentence to illustrate each of the uses of an adjective; one to illustrate each of the uses of an adverb; one to illustrate each of the uses of the conjunction.

11. Point out all the parts of speech in the sentences given in Lesson XIV.

XVI. INFLECTION, MODIFICATION, AND STRUCTURES

1. Notice the changes in the *form* of the noun *boy* in these sentences:

1. A *boy* was here.
2. The *boys* were here.
3. This is the *boy's* hat.
4. These are the *boys'* hats.

Note that this noun has not the same *form* in any two of these sentences.

2. Notice the change in *form* in the *pronouns* in these sentences:

1. *He* saw *me*.
2. *I* saw *him*.

Note that in these sentences the pronoun used as subject has not the same form as the pronoun used as object.

3. Notice the change in the *form* of the *verb* in these sentences:

1. I *am* here.
2. He *is* here.
3. They *are* here.

Note that in these sentences the form of the verb changes when the subject is changed.

4. Some words *change their form* to show their use in the sentence, or their relation to other words in the sentence. Such a change is called *inflection*.

DEFINITION:

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to show a change in meaning or use in the sentence.

5. Notice the use of the words *boy* and *man* in these sentences:

1. The *boy* sees the *man*.
2. The *man* sees the *boy*.

Note that these words have the same *form* in both sentences, though they are not used in the same way. The word *boy* is the subject in the first and the object in the second. The word *man* is the object in the first and the subject in the second. The words change their *use* or their *relation to other words*, but do not change their *form*.

DEFINITION:

A change in the form or in the use of a word in a sentence is called modification.

6. We have found that in language we use *words, phrases, clauses, and sentences*. These are the four *grammatical structures*.

The sentence is the unit of language; words, phrases, and clauses are component parts of the sentence.

7. Grammar is the science of the sentence.

It treats of the four grammatical structures, but of the first three only as elements of the fourth.

XVII. RULES FOR CAPITALS AND PUNCTUATION MARKS

1. A capital letter should be used in each of these cases:
 - a. To begin the first word of a sentence.
 - b. To begin a proper name.
 - c. To begin the first word in each line of poetry.
 - d. For each initial of a proper name.
 - e. For the words O and I.
 - f. To begin any name applied to Deity.
2. Write a sentence to illustrate each of the foregoing rules.
3. A period should be used:
 - a. At the close of each declarative or imperative sentence.
 - b. After each initial or other abbreviation.
4. Write a sentence to illustrate each of the foregoing rules.
5. Write a sentence to illustrate:
 - a. The use of the interrogation point.
 - b. The use of the exclamation point.

XVIII. NOUNS—CLASSIFICATION

1. A *Noun* is a name; or, a word used to represent an object by naming it.
2. Nouns are divided into two general classes, namely, *Common* and *Proper*.

DEFINITIONS:

A Proper Noun is the particular name of a person, place, or thing; as, Henry, Chicago, Fido.

A Common Noun is a general name of a person, place, or thing, and can be applied to any one of a class; as, boy, city, dog.

3. Common nouns may be divided into a number of different classes, but we shall here consider only four, namely, *class nouns*, *abstract nouns*, *collective nouns*, and *verbal nouns*.

4. There is a large class of animals, any one of which may be called by the name *dog*. There is another large class of animals any one of which may be called a *horse*. The name *chair* may be applied to any one of a large class of articles; so also may the names *knife*, *spoon*, and many others. Such names are called *Class Nouns*.

DEFINITION:

A Class Noun is one that may be applied to any one of a class of objects.

5. The word *abstract* means "separate from" or "considered by itself." We may consider *ambition* by itself, or as separate from any person who has this quality. That is, we may think of ambition "in the abstract," as we sometimes say. So may we think of any other quality or condition; as, *love*, *gratitude*, *goodness*, etc. Hence we call the names of these qualities and conditions *Abstract Nouns*.

DEFINITION:

An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality or a condition.

6. Some nouns in the singular number represent a group or collection of objects; as, *school*, *army*, *drove*. Such nouns are called *Collective Nouns*.

DEFINITION:

A Collective Noun is the name that in the singular number represents a group of persons or things.

7. *Writing* is the name of the *action* expressed by the verb *write*. Such a name is called a *Verbal Noun*.

DEFINITION:

A Verbal Noun is the name of an action.

XIX. EXERCISE IN THE CLASSES OF NOUNS

1. Write three sentences:

1. Each containing a proper noun.
2. Each containing a class noun.
3. Each containing an abstract noun.
4. Each containing a collective noun.
5. Each containing a verbal noun.

2. Tell what *class noun* may be applied to any one of these: *John, Willie, Charlie, and Henry.*

3. Tell what *class noun* may be applied to any one of these: *Susan, Julia, Kate, and Mary.*

4. Mention a *class noun* that may be applied to any one of the objects named in each of these classes:

1. Rose, pink, geranium, fuchsia, dahlia, lily, tulip, verbena, phlox, etc.
2. Pear, peach, apple, cherry, berry, quince, apricot, currant, etc.
3. Corn, wheat, oats, rye, barley, rice, etc.
4. Cat, dog, cow, sheep, deer, horse, etc.
5. Chicken, duck, turkey, goose, etc.

6. Girl, woman, lady, etc.
7. Boy, man, gentleman, etc.
8. Cousin, aunt, uncle, sister, niece, nephew, etc.

EXAMPLE: 1. Flower.

5. Tell what *abstract noun* is related to each of these adjectives:

beautiful	cruel	energetic	honest	faithful	polite
sorry	gentle	industrious	grateful	angry	ugly
sad	kind	wise	loyal	cheerful	muddy

EXAMPLE: Adjective, *beautiful*; abstract noun, *beauty*.

6. Tell what *collective noun* represents a group or collection of each of the following:

soldiers	horses	sheep	birds	geese
pupils	cattle	robbers	fish	singers
musicians with instruments		people assembled at church		
people at a picnic		people in a social gathering		
men holding a trial		the ships of a nation		

EXAMPLE: Army.

7. Write the *verbal noun* derived from each of these verbs:
- | | | | | | |
|------|------|-----|------|------|------|
| sing | walk | see | hear | come | read |
|------|------|-----|------|------|------|

XX. USE OF NOUNS IN SENTENCES

1. Write three sentences, each containing the *particular name* of a person; three, each containing the *particular name* of a place; three, each containing the *particular name* of a thing. What kind of nouns are these?

2. Write three sentences, each containing a *general name* of some class of persons; three, each containing a *general name* of

some class of places; three, each containing a *general name* of some class of things. What kind of nouns are these?

3. Write sentences, each containing the name of a collection of one of these: birds, bees, sailors, thieves, fish, geese, snakes. What kind of nouns are these?

NOTE: When reference is made to the collection as one body, a collective noun takes a singular verb; but when the individuals composing the collection are referred to in the sentence, the verb should be plural.

EXAMPLES: 1. The *jury was* kept on this case for two days.

2. The *jury were* divided in *their* opinions.

4. Write a sentence containing an *abstract noun* related to each of these: strong, bright, pure, deceitful, proud.

5. Write a sentence containing a *verbal noun* derived from each of these: try, weep, groan, laugh, jump, run.

XXI. GENDER OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

DEFINITION:

Gender is a modification of nouns and pronouns founded on a distinction of sex.

REMARK: Objects have sex; nouns and pronouns have gender. Sex is a natural attribute of objects; gender is a grammatical property of nouns and pronouns.

1. There are four genders: namely, *masculine, feminine, neuter, and common.*

2. *Nouns that refer to males are of the Masculine Gender; as, boy, John, father.*

3. *Nouns that refer to females are of the Feminine Gender; as, girl, Jane, mother.*

4. *Nouns that refer to either males or females, or both, are of the Common Gender; as, child, parent, cousin.*

5. *Nouns that refer to objects that have no sex are of the Neuter Gender; as, tree, rock, cloud.*

6. Note how gender is distinguished in these nouns: nephew, niece; uncle, aunt; king, queen. In these cases gender is shown by the use of different words.

7. Now note these: lion, lioness; hero, heroine; governor, governess. Here gender is indicated by the terminations of the words.

8. Now note these: man-servant, maid-servant; male relative, female relative; turkey-cock, turkey-hen. Note that the words "servant," "relative," and "turkey" are of the common gender; and that the distinction of gender is made by prefixing or suffixing some word that will show this distinction.

9. There are three ways of indicating the gender of nouns:

1. By using different words,

2. By using different endings,

3. By placing distinguishing words before or after nouns of the common gender.

10. Give an illustration, not already given, of each of the three ways of distinguishing gender.

11. Write the feminine for each of these masculine nouns:

governor	lord	gentleman	tiger	emperor
king	prince	bachelor	lad	duke
actor	beau	drake	gander	heir
count	sir	husband	giant	host

12. Write the masculine and feminine forms of ten nouns not yet given.

XXII. EXERCISE IN GENDER

1. Tell the gender of each noun in the following sentences:

1. The passenger's baggage was lost.
2. The passenger lost his baggage.
3. The passenger lost her baggage.
4. Solomon had sheep, oxen, men-servants, and maid-servants.
5. Alexander Hamilton was killed in a duel by Aaron Burr.
6. The valley of the Nile is very fertile.
7. The skilful pilot guided the boat safely through the rapids.
8. Roger Williams founded Rhode Island.

2. Write a sentence having for its subject a masculine noun and for its object a noun in the common gender.

3. Write a sentence containing a masculine noun, a feminine noun, and a neuter noun.

4. Write a sentence containing a masculine noun, a feminine noun, a neuter noun, and a noun in the common gender.

5. Write a sentence having a masculine subject and a feminine object.

XXIII. NUMBER OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

DEFINITION:

Number is that modification of a noun or pronoun which denotes whether one is meant or more than one.

1. There are two numbers, the singular and the plural.
2. *The Singular Number denotes but one; as, pen, boy, horse.*
3. *The Plural Number denotes more than one; as, pens, boys, horses.*

4. Most nouns form the plural by adding *s* to the singular.

5. Nouns ending in *s*, *z*, *x*, *ch* (sounded as in church), and *sh* form the plural by adding *es*; as, *cross*, *crosses*; *topaz*, *topazes*; *box*, *boxes*; *bench*, *benches*; *sash*, *sashes*.

6. Write the plural of each of these nouns:

star	trap	bush	cow	pencil
glass	coach	sphinx	adz	bear

7. Most nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant add *es* to form the plural; as, *negro*, *negroes*; *wo*, *woes*; *hero*, *heroes*.

Other nouns ending in *o* add *s* only; as, *folio*, *folios*.¹

8. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *ie* and add *s*; as, *lady*, *ladies*.

Other nouns ending in *y* add *s* only; as, *day*, *days*.

NOTE: Proper nouns do not change the *y* when they are used in the plural; as, *the two Marys*.

9. The following nouns change *f* or *fe* into *ve* and add *s*: *beef*, *calf*, *elf*, *half*, *leaf*, *life*, *loaf*, *knife*, *self*, *sheaf*, *shelf*, *thief*, *wife*, *wolf*; thus, *beef*, *beeves*.

Staff has two plurals, *staffs* and *staves*; but the compounds of *staff* form the plural regularly; as, *flag-staff*, *flag-staffs*.

Wharf has two plurals, *wharfs* and *wharves*. Other nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form the plural regularly; as, *fife*, *fifes*.

10. The following nouns form the plural irregularly: *child*, *children*; *foot*, *feet*; *louse*, *lice*; *mouse*, *mice*; *ox*, *oxen*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *woman*, *women*; *man*, *men*; *goose*, *geese*.

Brother has two plurals, *brothers* and *brethren*.

Penny has two plurals: *pence*, referring to *amount* of money; and *pennies*, referring to the *number* of coins.

¹ Pupils should consult a dictionary when in doubt as to the plural of words ending in *o*.

XXIV. NUMBER OF NOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *sheep, deer, swine, cod, trout, salmon, odds, means*, etc.

2. The names of sciences are now usually regarded as singular; as, *mathematics, ethics, optics, politics*, etc.

3. Most compounds form the plural regularly; as, *handful, handfuls; outpouring, outpourings*; etc.

Sometimes the *s* is added to the first part of the compound; as, *father-in-law, fathers-in-law; court-martial, courts-martial; knight-errant, knights-errant*.¹

Sometimes both parts of a compound are changed; as, *man-servant, men-servants; Knight-Templar, Knights-Templars*.¹

4. The plural of a letter or figure is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and *s*; as *t's, 5's, o's*.

EXAMPLE: There are two t's in battle.

5. Some nouns taken from foreign languages retain their foreign plurals; as, *alumnus, alumni; datum, data; axis, axes; crisis, crises; radius, radii*.¹

6. Write sentences illustrating all the cases mentioned in this lesson, using words not given in the text.

XXV. PERSON OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

DEFINITION:

Person is a modification of a noun or a pronoun showing whether it represents the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of.

¹ Pupils should form the habit of consulting a dictionary in all doubtful cases.

1. A noun or a pronoun representing the speaker is said to be of the First Person; as, *I, Theodore Roosevelt*, do issue this, my proclamation.

2. A noun or a pronoun representing the person spoken to is said to be of the Second Person; as, *You, Henry*, should prepare your own lesson.

3. A noun or a pronoun representing a person or an object spoken of is said to be of the Third Person; as, *Andrew Johnson* was once a *tailor*.

4. In nouns there is no *inflection* to denote person. Hence we determine the person of a noun from its use in the sentence.

5. Tell the person of each noun in these sentences:

1. Pupils, you may now prepare your lesson.

2. I, S. W. T. Lanham, Governor of Texas, do issue this proclamation.

3. We boys enjoyed the music.

4. How old are you, Mary?

5. We, boys, will accept your challenge.

6. The British surrendered at Yorktown.

6. Write a sentence containing a noun of the first person; one containing a noun of the second person; one containing a noun of the third person.

XXVI. CASE IN NOUNS

1. Note that the noun *day* is not used in the same way in any two of these sentences:

1. A day was lost.

2. A day's delay cost us the victory.

3. We lost a day.
4. He worked by the day.
5. The evening and the morning were the first day.

Observe that the word *day* has but two different forms in these sentences; namely, *day* and *day's*; yet it has not in any two sentences the same *relation to the other words*.

In the first sentence, *day* is the subject; in the second, *day's* is a possessive modifier of the noun *day*; in the third, *day* is the object of the verb *lost*; in the fourth, *day* is the object of the preposition *by*; in the fifth, *day* is a predicate noun or subjective complement.¹

These examples show that a noun may have several different uses in the sentence. These different uses are called *constructions*.

DEFINITION:

By Construction of a word we mean its use in the sentence, or its relation to the other words in the sentence.

Sometimes the *form* of the word changes as the construction changes, and sometimes it does not. (See Lesson XVI.)

2. It appears from the sentences given under 1 that the noun has but two cases that can be distinguished by *inflection*; that is, the noun has but two *forms* by which its relation to other words in the sentence can be shown. One of these forms is the *name form*, or *nominative form*; as, *day*. The other is the *possessive form*; as, *day's*.

3. We have already learned *five* different *constructions* in which nouns may be used. We shall learn others in the future.²

¹ See Lesson XXI, Part One.

² See Lessons XXIII to XXX, Part Three.

DEFINITION:

Case is that modification of a noun or a pronoun by which its relation to other words in the sentence is shown.

4. Nouns are commonly said to have three cases, the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

5. In the first and fifth sentences given under 1, the noun *day* is said to be in the nominative case; in the second, in the possessive case; in the third and fourth, in the objective case. What constructions require the nominative case? The possessive? The objective?

RULES:

A noun or a pronoun used as the subject or as the subjective complement of a finite verb is in the Nominative Case.

A noun or a pronoun used as a possessive modifier is in the Possessive Case.

A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a verb or of a preposition is in the Objective Case.

6. Write four sentences containing nouns in the nominative case; two, containing nouns in the possessive case; four, containing nouns in the objective case.

XXVII. EXERCISE IN CASE, CONSTRUCTION, AND INFLECTION OF NOUNS

Point out each noun in the following sentences, giving the case of each, the construction of each, and state in each instance whether case or construction is shown by inflection:

1. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again,—
The eternal years of God are hers;
But error, wounded, writhes in pain,
And dies amid her worshippers.
2. Men are the architects of their own fortunes.
3. Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well your part, there all the honor lies.
4. Lincoln, Garfield, and McKinley were assassinated.
5. Longfellow wrote "Evangeline" and "The Children's Hour."
6. He is the "Children's Poet."

XXVIII. PARSING NOUNS

To parse a noun is to state:

1. The class to which it belongs.
2. Its gender.
3. Its person.
4. Its number.
5. Its construction.
6. Its case.
7. Rule in regard to construction and case.

EXAMPLE 1. John has read the book.

(a) *John* is a name, hence it is a noun; it is the particular name of an individual, hence it is a proper noun; it is the name of a male, hence it is of the masculine gender; it names a person spoken of, hence it is in the third person; it represents but one person, hence it is in the singular number; it is the subject of the verb *has read*, hence it is in the nominative case.

RULE:

The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case; or, The subject of a sentence (or clause) is in the nominative case.

(b) *Book* is a name, hence it is a noun; it is the general name of an object, hence it is a common noun; it is the name of an object without sex, hence it is in the neuter gender; it represents an object spoken of, hence it is in the third person; it denotes but one, hence it is in the singular number; it is used here as the object of the transitive verb *has read*, hence it is in the objective case.

RULE:

The object of a transitive verb in the active voice is in the objective case.

After some practice, pupils may follow this shorter form:

(a) *John* is a proper noun, masculine, third, singular, nominative, the subject of *has read*. Rule.

(b) *Book* is a common noun, neuter, third, singular, objective case, the object of *has read*. Rule.

EXAMPLE 2. The children sat by the fire.

(a) *Children* is a common noun, common, third, plural, nominative, the subject of *sat*. Rule.

(b) *Fire* is a common noun, neuter, third, singular, objective, the object of *by*. Rule.

EXAMPLE 3. Susan is Mary's friend.

(a) *Mary's* is a proper noun, feminine, third, singular, possessive, used as an adjective modifier of *friend*. Rule.

(b) *Friend* is a common noun, feminine, third, singular, nominative, used as a predicate nominative. Rule.

Parse all the nouns in the sentences given in Lesson XXVII.

XXIX. APPOSITIVE MODIFIERS

1. Notice the office of the italicized words in these sentences:

1. Webster, the *lexicographer*, died in 1843.

2. Webster, the *statesman*, died in 1852.

The words *lexicographer* and *statesman* distinguish the two men who bore the name *Webster*. They modify the noun *Webster*.

2. In this sentence,

That is a bust of Milton, the poet,

the word *poet* shows what Milton is spoken of. In a sense, *poet* modifies the noun *Milton*. A noun so used is called an *appositive modifier*, or it is said to be *in apposition with the noun it modifies*. Sometimes it is called an *explanatory modifier*.

RULE:

A noun or a pronoun used to modify another noun by denoting the same person, place, or thing, is by apposition in the same case.

3. In what case is *Webster* in the first sentence under 1? Why? In what case then is *lexicographer*? Why? Answer like questions in regard to *statesman* and *poet*.

4. Point out the appositive modifiers in these sentences, and state the case of each:

1. Have you met Mr. Jones, the new teacher?

2. We bought the corn from Mr. Smith, the farmer.

3. The man on horseback is Captain Kirk, the marshal of the day.

4. Arnold, the traitor, was an unhappy man.

5. "The Conquered Banner," a beautiful poem, was written by Father Ryan, the "Poet Priest."

6. Major Andre, the spy, was executed.

5. Parse all the nouns in the foregoing sentences.

XXX. A REVIEW

1. How are sentences classed as to meaning? Give examples.

2. How are sentences classed as to form? Give examples.

3. Write a sentence containing an adjective clause; one containing an adverb clause; one containing a noun clause.

4. What is a proposition? Inflection? Construction? Modification?

5. What is a subordinate clause? A principal clause? A member?

6. Write a simple sentence containing a compound subject; one containing a compound predicate; one containing a compound object; one containing a compound predicate nominative.

7. Name the four grammatic structures. Illustrate.

8. What is grammar? What are the essential elements of the sentence? The principal elements? Name the other elements of the sentence.

9. Name the classes of nouns and give an example of each.

10. What is gender? How many genders are there? Give examples. Name the ways in which gender may be denoted, and give an example of each.

11. What is person? Illustrate.

12. What is number? State ways in which different classes of nouns form the plural, and give examples.

13. What is case? How many cases are given? Which case

is distinguished by inflection? In what case is the subject of a sentence? A predicate noun? The object of a verb? The object of a preposition? An appositive?

14. How many rules for the use of capitals do you know? State and illustrate each.

15. How many rules for the use of the period do you know? State and illustrate each.

XXXI. PRONOUNS—SUBSTANTIVES

DEFINITION:

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; or, a word used to represent an object without naming it.

1. Tell why the italicized words in the following sentences are pronouns:

1. Henry has prepared *his* lesson.
2. *I* shall try to do *my* duty.
3. *You* have placed *me* under obligations to *you*.
4. *We* do not know what the future may have in store for *us*.

DEFINITION:

The word for which a pronoun stands is called its Antecedent.

2. Nouns and pronouns are often called *Substantives*. We should know the meaning this word has in grammar.

DEFINITION:

A Substantive is a noun or any word or other structure used to fill the usual office of a noun in the sentence.

2. Pronouns are variously classified by different authors. We here notice only these classes: 1. Personal Pronouns; 2. Interrogative Pronouns; 3. Relative Pronouns; 4. Adjective Pronouns.

3. A *Personal Pronoun* shows by its form whether it represents the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

EXAMPLE: I, you, he.

4. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, are called *Interrogative Pronouns*.

EXAMPLE: *Who* invented the telephone?

5. A *Relative Pronoun* introduces a subordinate clause.

EXAMPLE: It was Prof. Bell *who* invented the telephone.

6. Classify the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:

1. *Who* built the Pyramids?
2. We do not know *who* built *them*.
3. *I* wish *you* would tell *us*.

7. Write a sentence containing a personal pronoun; one containing an interrogative pronoun; one containing a relative pronoun.

XXXII. MODIFICATIONS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. Personal pronouns have *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*.
2. Personal pronouns are more fully inflected than any other class of words in English. What is inflection?
3. Inflection of nouns or pronouns is called *Declension*.
4. Following is the full declension of the personal pronouns:

DECLENSION

<i>Singular</i>	First Person	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nominative</i> , I		we
<i>Possessive</i> , my, <i>or</i> mine		our, <i>or</i> ours
<i>Objective</i> , me		us
Second Person		
<i>Nom.</i> , you (<i>or</i> thou)		you, <i>or</i> ye
<i>Poss.</i> , thy, thine, your, <i>or</i> yours		your, <i>or</i> yours
<i>Obj.</i> , you, <i>or</i> thee		you
Third Person—Masculine		
<i>Nom.</i> , he		they
<i>Poss.</i> , his		their, <i>or</i> theirs
<i>Obj.</i> , him		them
Third Person—Feminine		
<i>Nom.</i> , she		they
<i>Poss.</i> , her, <i>or</i> hers		their, <i>or</i> theirs
<i>Obj.</i> , her		them
Third Person—Neuter		
<i>Nom.</i> , it		they
<i>Poss.</i> , its		their, <i>or</i> theirs
<i>Obj.</i> , it		them

5. Write eight sentences using different pronouns as subjects.
6. Write sentences illustrating uses of all the possessive pronouns.
7. Write sentences using the objective case forms of the pronouns.
8. Write sentences containing predicate pronouns.

XXXIII. MODIFICATION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. The forms *thy*, *thine*, *thee*, and *ye* occur frequently in the Bible. In modern English they are seldom used except in poetry and in prayer.

2. The possessive forms *my*, *thy*, *your*, *his*, *her*, and *its* are used when the modified noun is expressed. When the noun is omitted, *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *his*, *hers*, and *its* are used. Notice that *his* and *its* are in both classes.

EXAMPLES: 1. This book is mine. This book is my book.

2. That knife is yours. That knife is your knife.

3. This watch is his. This watch is his watch.

Write sentences showing how the other possessive forms are used.

3. The forms *mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, and *his*, used without a modified noun, have the *construction* of the *nominative* or *objective* case, though they have the possessive form.

EXAMPLES: 1. Your book is new, *mine* is old.

2. That book is *yours*, this is *his*.

3. She found my book, and I found *hers*.

Mine is the subject of a proposition, a nominative construction. *Yours* and *his* have the construction of the predicate nominative. *Hers* is the object of the verb *found*, an objective construction.

4. Sometimes the word *self* or *selves* is added to some form of a personal pronoun; as, *myself*; *yourselves*, etc. The pronouns so formed are called *compound personal pronouns* to distinguish them from the *simple* personal pronouns given in Lesson XXXII, 4.

5. The following are the compound forms:

Singular—*myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself.*

Plural—*ourselves, yourselves, themselves.*

These pronouns have no possessive form, and the objective is the same as the nominative. They are used mainly for emphasis or reflexively.

EXAMPLES: 1. You did it yourself. (Emphatic.)

2. He is unjust to himself. (Reflexive.)

6. Notice that only the pronouns of the third person singular have *gender* forms. In other pronouns gender is determined from the context.

XXXIV. EXERCISE IN USING PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. Write nine sentences, using a personal pronoun as the subject of each. Do not use the same pronoun in any two sentences.

2. Write eight sentences, using a personal pronoun as the object of the verb in each. Do not use the same pronoun twice.

3. Write eight sentences, using a personal pronoun as the object of a preposition in each, using no pronoun more than once.

4. Write eight sentences, using a personal pronoun as a possessive modifier in each.

5. Write nine sentences, using a personal pronoun as a predicate nominative in each. What case form did you use in each of the first nine sentences? In the second group? In the third group? In the fourth group? In the fifth?

6. Write nine sentences, using compound personal pronouns. Tell whether each is used reflexively or for emphasis.

XXXV. CONCORD OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. By *concord* in grammar we mean the agreement of one part of speech with another in gender, person, number, or case.

2. Notice that we can not say, The man shut *her* eye, or *their* eye, or *its* eye, or *my* eye, or *your* eye. We say, The man shut *his* eye.

The antecedent, *man*, is third person, singular, masculine. The pronoun must be third person, singular, masculine. Hence *his* is the correct form.

RULE:

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, person, and number.

3. Show the concord of pronoun and antecedent in each of these sentences:

1. Every girl should follow *her* mother's advice.
2. Every boy should imitate *his* father's virtues.
3. Good pupils obey *their* teacher's instructions.
4. Riches make *themselves* wings.
5. Light the lamp and set *it* on the stand.
6. Instinct teaches the bird how to build *its* nest.

REMARK: Sometimes the neuter pronoun is used to refer to a child, or to an animal, when sex is not taken into account.

4. Write a sentence containing:

1. A personal pronoun, masculine, singular.
2. A personal pronoun, feminine, plural.
3. A personal pronoun, neuter, singular.
4. A personal pronoun, feminine, singular.

5. It should be observed that a pronoun may or may not be in the same *case* as its antecedent. The *case* of a pronoun is determined by its use in the sentence and without reference to the antecedent.

EXAMPLE: John has returned to school, and *he* will soon overtake *his* class.

Notice (1) that *John* is the antecedent of *he* and *his*; (2) that *he* is in the same case as *John* because it is used in the same way; (3) that *his* is not in the same case as *John*, because it is not used in the same way; (4) that both *he* and *his* are third person, singular, masculine, to agree with the antecedent, according to rule given under 2.

XXXVI. CONCORD OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

(CONTINUED)

1. Two antecedents connected by *and* usually require a *plural* pronoun; as, John and James lost *their* books.

2. Two singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor* require a *singular* pronoun; as,

1. James or John has lost *his* book.

2. Neither James nor John has lost *his* book.

3. Singular subjects modified by *each*, *no*, or *every*, are taken separately and require a singular pronoun, though they may be connected by *and*; as,

1. Each man and boy is expected to do *his* duty.

2. Every wife, every mother, and every sister, clapped *her* hands.

4. Singular antecedents of different genders, when taken separately, or a singular antecedent of the common gender, may take

a pronoun of the masculine gender rather than the feminine gender; as,

1. Each boy and girl is required to study *his* lesson.
2. Each pupil is requested to study *his* lesson.

Some prefer to say, Each boy and girl is requested to study *his* or *her* lesson; and, Each pupil is requested to study *his* or *her* lesson. These forms are correct; but they are awkward, and should not be used.

Some say, Each boy and girl *are* expected to study *their* lessons. This is clearly incorrect.

It is usually better to avoid these difficulties by saying, All boys and girls are expected to study *their* lessons; and, All pupils are requested to study *their* lessons.

5. A collective noun requires a singular pronoun when reference is made to the collection as a unit, and a plural pronoun when reference is made to the individuals composing the collection; as,

1. The committee *has* rendered *its* decision.
2. The committee *have* found that *they* can not agree.

6. Choose the correct one of the forms in the parenthesis in each of these sentences, and in each case state the reason for your choice:

1. One of you has lost (his, her, your) book.
2. The jury could not agree, and (it, they) asked to be discharged.
3. Now, boys, I wish each one of you to decide for (himself, themselves).
4. Every man and woman must bear (his, her, their) own burdens.

5. Every passenger must show (his, her, their) ticket.
6. Neither would admit that (he, she, they) was wrong.
7. Every hill and every mountain has (its, their) echo.
8. There is no day and no night without (its, their) cares.

XXXVII. EXERCISE IN USE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Write sentences containing pronouns as stated in the following:

1. First, nominative, plural;
2. Second, objective, plural;
3. Third, feminine, objective, singular;
4. Third, neuter, possessive, singular;
5. Third, neuter, possessive, plural;
6. Third, feminine, possessive, singular;
7. First, possessive, plural;
8. First, objective, singular;
9. Second, possessive, plural;
10. Third, masculine, objective, singular;
11. First, nominative, singular;
12. Second, nominative, plural;
13. First, possessive, singular;
14. Third, feminine, nominative, singular;
15. First, objective, plural;
16. Third, neuter, objective, plural;
17. Third, masculine, objective, plural;
18. Third, feminine, objective, plural;
19. Second, nominative, singular;
20. Second, possessive, singular.

XXXVIII. MODIFICATIONS OF INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

1. What is an interrogative pronoun?

2. The *interrogative pronouns* are *who*, *which*,¹ and *what*,¹ used in asking questions.

3. *Who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*, when used to introduce subordinate clauses, are called *relative pronouns*.

4. These pronouns are *not inflected* to denote *number*; that is, *each* of them has the same *form* for the singular as for the plural.

5. These pronouns are *not inflected* to denote *gender*.

6. These are the case-forms of *who*: Nom., *who*; Poss., *whose*; Obj., *xhom*.

7. These are the case-forms of *which*: Nom. and Obj., *which*; Poss., *whose*.

8. *That* and *what* are *not inflected* to denote *case*.

9. *Who* usually refers to persons; *what* and *which* usually refer to things; *that* may refer to persons or things, in some cases being preferable to *who* or *which*.

10. Tell whether the italicized words in these sentences are interrogative or relative pronouns, and state reason in each case:

1. *Whose* book is it?

2. I do not know *whose* book it is.

3. I know the man *who* lives in that house.

4. Blessed is the man *that* walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly.

5. Henry found the book, *which* had been lost.

6. Henry found the book *that* was on the table.

¹ *Which* and *what* in interrogative sentences are often adjectives; as, *Which* book did you bring? *What* building is that?

7. Have you read the life of Alexander Hamilton, *who* was killed by Aaron Burr?
8. Have you seen the gun with *which* the man was killed?
9. *Who* is the happy warrior? *Who* is he
That every man in arms should wish to be?
10. I met my friend, *whom* I had not seen in years.
11. I met a friend *that* I had not seen in years.
11. Point out all the pronouns in the foregoing sentences, and state the construction of each.

XXXIX. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

1. Tell to what part of speech each italicized word belongs:

1. *This* book is mine, but *that* book is yours.
2. *Each* boy should study his lesson.
3. *All* people should be honest.

2. Tell to what part of speech each italicized word belongs:

1. *This* is my book, but *that* is yours.
2. *Each* should study his lesson.
3. *All* should be honest.

3. In the first group of sentences, *this*, *that*, *each*, and *all* modify nouns, and are therefore *adjectives*. In the second group of sentences, these words take the place of nouns, and may therefore be called *pronouns*. Such words are classed as *adjective pronouns*.

DEFINITION:

An adjective used as a pronoun is called an Adjective Pronoun.

4. Adjective pronouns are usually divided into two classes, namely, *Demonstrative Pronouns* and *Indefinite Pronouns*.

5. *Demonstrative pronouns* are so called because they show definitely what objects they represent; *demonstrative* means *showing*.

EXAMPLES: *this* and *these*, *that* and *those*.

6. *Indefinite pronouns* do not definitely show what particular objects they represent.

These are indefinite pronouns: *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*, *all*, *one*, *none*, etc.

7. All these words should be considered adjectives when used to modify nouns, and adjective pronouns when they stand alone.

8. *This* has *these* for its plural, and *that* has *those* for its plural. The plural of *other* is *others*, and the plural of *one* is *ones*. Other adjective pronouns are not inflected to denote number.

9. Adjective pronouns are not inflected to denote gender or person; a few are inflected to denote the possessive case; as, *one*, *one's*; *other*, *other's*.

XL. EXERCISE IN PRONOUNS

1. State the class and the construction of each pronoun in these sentences:

1. This book is large, that is small.
2. This is the house that Jack built.
3. The little boy lost his ball.
4. Whose house is that?
5. I know the man who owns it.
6. Those that sow should reap.
7. To whom did you lend your knife?
8. Will you visit my friend and me?
9. Whom did he see?
10. Heaven helps those who help themselves.

11. Those who show mercy shall receive mercy.

12. Every man should do his duty.

Tell which of the foregoing sentences are simple, which complex, and which compound.

2. Fill the blanks in these sentences with pronouns:

1. They came to see my brother and —.

2. It was —.

3. I think it was —.

4. It is — who have gone.

5. — and — were late.

6. I know the man of — you speak.

7. — and — brother were there.

8. You asked — and — to go.

9. It was — — spoke.

10. They disappointed — and —.

3. Give the case of each pronoun in the sentences under 2.

XLI. PARSING PRONOUNS

To parse a pronoun is to state: (1) its class; (2) its antecedent; (3) its gender; (4) its person; (5) its number; (6) rule for its gender, person, and number; (7) its construction and case; (8) rule for case.

EXAMPLE 1. John has learned his lesson.

His is a personal pronoun, masculine, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent *John*.

RULE:

A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, person, and number.

His is in the possessive case and is used as a possessive modifier of the noun *lesson*.

RULE:

A pronoun used to modify a noun and denoting a different person or thing is in the possessive case.

EXAMPLE 2. We admire people who are brave and true.

We is a personal pronoun, common gender, first, plural, to agree with its antecedent, which represents a class of persons of whom the speaker is one. Rule.

We is used as the subject of the verb *admire*, hence it is in the nominative case. Rule.

Who is used to introduce a subordinate clause, hence it is a relative pronoun. It is common gender, third, plural, to agree with its antecedent *people*. Rule.

It is used as the subject of the finite verb *are*, hence it is in the nominative case. Rule.

EXAMPLE 3. It was a bird that was killed.

To understand the syntax of this sentence, put it in this form: It that was killed was a bird; or in this: It (the thing) that was killed was a bird.

It is a personal pronoun, neuter, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent, *thing* understood. Rule.

It is used as the subject of the verb *was*, hence it is in the nominative case. Rule.

That is a pronoun used to introduce a subordinate clause, hence it is a relative pronoun. It is neuter, third, singular, to agree with its antecedent *it*, representing *thing* understood. Rule.

That is used as the subject of the verb-phrase *was killed*, hence it is in the nominative case. Rule.

EXAMPLE 4. Who ate the cake?

We know that *who* is an interrogative pronoun, because it is here used in asking a question. We also know by inspection that it has the nominative form, and we know, too, that this form is correctly used here, because it is the subject of the sentence. As *who* is not inflected to denote gender, person, or number, we cannot determine these properties from the *form* of *who*; and as the context does not reveal the antecedent, we have no way of knowing the gender, person, or number of *who*.

If we answer the question by saying, The *children* ate the cake, then we may say that *who* agrees with its *subsequent*, *children*, in gender, number, and person. Some do this, but it is not very satisfactory.

EXAMPLE 5. You try this plan and I will try that.

That may be parsed as an adjective, modifying the noun *plan* understood, or as an adjective pronoun, thus:

That is an adjective, used here to take the place of a noun, hence it is an adjective pronoun. It is not inflected to denote gender, person, number, or case. As it represents *plan* understood, it may be said to be neuter gender, third, singular to agree with its antecedent *plan*. Rule.

It is used as the object of the verb-phrase *will try*, hence it is objective in case from its construction. Rule.

Parse all the pronouns found in Lesson XL.

XLII. PARSING PRONOUNS

Parse all the pronouns found in the eleven sentences given under 10 in Lesson XXXVIII.

XLIII. PARSING PRONOUNS

Parse all the pronouns found in the six sentences given under 3 in Lesson XXXV, and under 6 in Lesson XXXVI.

XLIV. ADJECTIVES—CLASSES

DEFINITION:

*An Adjective is a word used to modify a noun, pronoun, or other substantive.*¹

1. A *Descriptive Adjective* modifies by expressing some quality; as, *large* men, *good* children.

2. A *Definitive Adjective* points out or limits without expressing any quality; as, *those* men, *some* children.

3. A *Proper Adjective* is one derived from a proper name; as, *American*, from America; *Jeffersonian*, from Jefferson.

A proper adjective should begin with a capital letter.

4. *A*, *an*, and *the* are definitive adjectives. They are sometimes called *articles*. *A* and *an* are called *indefinite articles*; *the*, the *definite article*. *A* and *an* are used only before singular nouns. *The* is used before singular or plural nouns. *A* is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound. *An* is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound.

5. Adjectives that denote number are called *Numeral Adjectives*.

¹ Logically and in fact, an adjective expresses an attribute of the *object* represented by the noun or pronoun, and not an attribute of a noun or pronoun. In grammar, however, we say that "an adjective modifies a *noun* or a *pronoun*" (1) for brevity of expression, and (2) to state the grammatical relation of one *word* to another *word* in the sentence. The teacher should, in oral instruction, lead pupils to see the logical relations of ideas as well as the grammatical relations of words.

6. Numeral Adjectives are divided into *Cardinals*, *Ordinals*, *Multiplicatives*, and *Fractionals*.

7. A *Cardinal* denotes the number of objects; as, *four*, *fifty*.

8. An *Ordinal* denotes the position of an object in a series; as, *fourth*, *fiftieth*.

9. A *Multiplicative* denotes how many fold; as, *fourfold*, *fiftyfold*.

10. A *Fractional adjective* denotes a fractional part; as, He owns a *fourth* interest.

11. Write two sentences, each containing a descriptive adjective; two, each containing a definitive adjective; two, each containing a proper adjective; two, each containing the definite article; two, each containing an indefinite article; four, each containing a numeral adjective.

XLV. INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES

1. *This* and *that* are inflected to denote *number*. Other definitive adjectives are not inflected.

2. Descriptive adjectives have but one modification, *Comparison*.

DEFINITION:

Comparison is the modification of a descriptive adjective to denote relative degrees of quality possessed by the object described.

3. Descriptive adjectives have three degrees of comparison: *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*.

DEFINITIONS:

The Positive Degree of an adjective denotes the simple degree of quality in the object or class of ob-

jects described, without express comparison with other objects; as, a tall boy, high mountains.

The Comparative Degree is the form employed to denote that the quality expressed by the adjective belongs to one of two objects or classes of objects in a higher or lower degree than to the other.

EXAMPLES: This apple is *sweeter* than that.

These apples are *less sweet* than those.

The Superlative Degree is the form employed to denote that the quality expressed by the adjective belongs to one of three or more objects in a higher or lower degree than to any of the others.

EXAMPLES: The rose is the *prettiest* of all flowers.

Jupiter is the *largest* of the planets.

4. Adjectives of one syllable and some adjectives of two syllables add *er* to the positive to form the comparative, and *est* to form the superlative.

EXAMPLES:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
high	higher	highest
sweet	sweeter	sweetest
happy	happier	happiest
able	abler	ablest

5. Many adjectives of two syllables and nearly all adjectives of more than two syllables prefix *more* or *less* to the positive to form the *comparative*, and *most* or *least* to form the *superlative*.

EXAMPLES:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
ambitious	more ambitious	most ambitious
hopeful	less hopeful	least hopeful

XLVI. INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES (CONTINUED)

1. Some adjectives are compared irregularly.

EXAMPLES:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
bad, ill, or evil	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
____ ¹	further	furthest
____ ¹	former	____ ¹
____ ¹	____ ¹	foremost or first
hind	hinder	hindermost, hindmost
____ ¹	inner	inmost, innermost
late	later, latter	latest, last
little	less	least
many	more	most
much	more	most
near	nearer	nearest
____ ¹	nether	nethermost
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
____ ¹	outer	outmost, outermost
____ ¹	____ ¹	topmost
____ ¹	utter	utmost, uttermost

¹ Wanting.

2. Adjectives that in their simple form express the highest degree of a quality are not properly compared; as, *perfect, round, extreme, dead, sole, sufficient, infinite, immemorial, supreme*, etc.

There can be no degrees in the quality expressed by such adjectives. We may consistently say, for example, that one thing is *more nearly perfect* than another. We can not, however, even think of one thing as *perfect*, and at the same time of another thing as *more perfect*. Such expressions are sometimes used, but they can not be defended. Their use indicates careless speech or illogical thought.

3. State the rule for the spelling of the comparative and superlative of each of these: red, dry, happy, brave.

4. Write sentences using the three forms of each of these:

glad	true	gracious	shy
sly	hopeful	deep	tardy
icy	magnanimous	sad	tranquil

XLVII. USE OF ARTICLES—*THIS* AND *THAT*

1. Notice the force of the articles in these sentences:

1. I have a red and white cow.
2. I have a red and a white cow.
3. He gave me a black and tan dog.
4. He gave me a black and a tan dog.
5. I saw the deaf and blind man.
6. I saw the deaf and the blind man.

How many cows are referred to in the first sentence? In the second? How many dogs in the third sentence? In the fourth? How many men in the fifth? In the sixth?

Note that the repetition of the article before an adjective gives a singular noun a plural meaning; or, we may say that the article, thus repeated, shows that the noun is understood as if repeated.

2. Notice the force of the articles in these sentences, all of which are correct:

1. The right and the left hand were both hurt.
2. The right and left hands were both hurt.
3. The upper and the lower side are parallel.
4. The upper and lower sides are parallel.
5. He read the first and the second verse.
6. He read the first and second verses.

Note that when the article is repeated, the noun has the singular form; and that when the article is not repeated, the noun has the plural form.

3. Write ten sentences showing the force of the articles as shown in 1 and 2.

4. *This* and *that* have the plural forms *these* and *those*.

5. *This* and *these* refer to objects near at hand either in time or in space, while *that* and *those* refer to objects distant in time or in space.

6. Many persons use *these* or *those* incorrectly for *this* or *that* in such sentences as the following:

1. I like *this* kind of apples, but I do not like *that* kind.
2. I bought many of *this* sort of flowers, and only a few of *that* sort.

Note that in "*this* kind of apples" the word *this* modifies *kind*, not *apples*, and that *kind* is singular, and therefore we should use *this* and not *these*.

6. Write eight sentences, using *this* correctly in two, *these* in two, *that* in two, and *those* in two.

XLVIII. USE OF COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

1. Which of these sentences is correct?

1. John is taller than any boy in his class.
2. John is taller than any other boy in his class.

Of course John is "in his class." He can not be taller than himself. Hence he can not be "taller than any boy in his class." He may be "taller than any *other* boy in his class."

2. Notice these two:

1. Solomon was wiser than any man.
2. Solomon was wiser than any other man.

The words "any man" include Solomon. The words "any other man" do not include Solomon.

Note that when the comparative degree is used, two persons or things or groups are compared. In the last sentence, for instance, "Solomon" and "other man" are compared. "Solomon" is called the *former term* of comparison, and "other man" the *latter term*.

RULE:

When we use the comparative, the latter term must not include the former term.

Apply this rule to the four sentences given under 1 and 2.

3. Write four correct sentences to illustrate the rule given under 2, and show in each case that the *latter term of comparison* does not include the *former term*.

4. State which of these sentences is correct:

1. John is the tallest of his brothers.
2. John is the tallest of the boys in the family.

Notice that John is not one of "his brothers"; but he is one of "the boys in the family."

5. Which of these two is correct?

1. The teacher is the oldest pupil in the room.
2. The teacher is the oldest person in the room.

The term *pupil* does not include the term *teacher*; the term *person* does include the term *teacher*.

RULE:

When the superlative degree is used, the latter term must include the former term.

Apply this rule to the four sentences given under 4 and 5.

6. Write four sentences illustrating the rule given under 5, and show in each one that the *latter term* includes the *former term*.

XLIX. USE OF COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES (CONTINUED)

1. Write these sentences, using the superlative form instead of the comparative in each sentence, and making other necessary changes:

1. Texas is larger than any other State in the Union.
2. New York is larger than any other city in America.
3. Queen Victoria's reign was longer than any other in English history.
4. The rose is prettier than any other flower.

5. I like peaches better than any other kind of fruit.
6. This tree is taller than any other in the forest.
7. Large mountains interest me more than any other object in nature.
8. Mary is older than any of her sisters.
9. The horse is more serviceable than any other animal.
10. This pupil, more than any other, deserves the prize.

EXAMPLE: Texas is the largest State in the Union.

2. Write these sentences, using the comparative instead of the superlative, and making the necessary changes:

1. William is the oldest boy in the room.
2. My mother was the youngest of five sisters.
3. Rhode Island is the smallest State in the Union.
4. Lake Superior is the largest lake in the United States.
5. I like that picture best of all.
6. Grammar is the most interesting of our studies.
7. Many think Jefferson the greatest of American statesmen.
8. He has the handsomest house in town.
9. The mocking-bird is the sweetest songster in the grove.
10. He is the bravest boy in the crowd.
11. An empty wagon makes the loudest noise.

EXAMPLE: William is older than any other boy in the room.

L. PARSING ADJECTIVES

To parse an adjective, state

1. Why it is an adjective.

2. Its class.

3. Compare it, if it can be compared.

EXAMPLE 1. Solomon was a wise man.

Wise modifies the noun *man*, hence it is an adjective. It modifies by expressing a quality, hence it is a descriptive adjective. Comparison: Pos., *wise*; Comp., *wiser*; Sup., *wisest*. It is in the positive degree.

Shorter Form: *Wise* is a descriptive adjective, in the positive degree, and modifies the noun *man*.

EXAMPLE 2. Monroe was the fifth president of the United States.

The is a definitive adjective, limiting the meaning of the noun *president* without expressing quality. It can not be compared. It is sometimes called the definite article.

Fifth limits the meaning of the noun *president* without expressing quality, hence it is a definitive adjective. It is used in numbering, hence it is a numeral adjective. It denotes position in a series, hence it is an ordinal adjective. It can not be compared.

Shorter Form: *Fifth* is a definitive, numeral, ordinal adjective, limiting the meaning of the noun *President*.

Parse all the adjectives found in the sentences given under 1 and 2 in Lesson XLVII, and those under 1 and 2 in Lesson XLIX.

LI. VERBS—CLASSES

DEFINITION:

A Verb is a word that asserts.

1. A verb may assert *action*; as, Children *play*.

2. A verb may assert *being*; as, Animals *exist*.

3. A verb may assert *state or condition*; as, *Babies sleep*.

4. A verb may assert *ownership*; as, *He has a horse*.

1. A verb may assert of the subject an attribute expressed by an adjective or a substantive; as, 1. Calhoun was *eloquent*.

2. Calhoun was a *statesman*.

Eloquent is called a predicate adjective. *Statesman* is called a predicate noun.

2. Some verbs assert action that is received by some person or thing; as, Burr *killed* Hamilton. Hamilton *was killed* by Burr.

Such verbs are called *transitive verbs*.

DEFINITIONS:

A Transitive Verb is a verb asserting action that is received by some person or thing.

An Intransitive Verb is a verb that does not assert action received by a person or thing.

EXAMPLES OF INTRANSITIVE VERBS: 1. Time is. 2. The column stands on a rock. 3. Grass is green. 4. Water is a liquid. 5. Birds fly.

3. Sometimes the subject of a verb is not clearly determined in the mind of the speaker, and is represented by the pronoun *it*; as, *It snows*. *It grows cold*. *Snows* and *grows* are called *impersonal verbs*.

DEFINITION:

An Impersonal Verb is one that has an indeterminate subject.

4. The present tense (name form), the past tense, and the past participle are called the *Principal Parts* of a verb.

DEFINITIONS:

A Regular Verb is one that forms its past tense and

past participle by adding d or ed to the present; as, walk, walked, walked.

An Irregular Verb is one that does not form its past tense and past participle by adding d or ed to the present; as, write, wrote, written.

A verb that has two or more forms for its past tense or past participle is called a Redundant Verb; as, hang, hung or hanged, hung or hanged.

A verb that lacks some of its principal parts is called a Defective Verb; as, quoth.

Quoth is used only in the past tense, and only in the first and third persons, singular, of that tense.

5. Write four sentences, each containing a transitive verb; four, each containing an intransitive verb; two, each containing an impersonal verb.

6. Mention three regular verbs and explain why you think they are regular; three irregular verbs, and explain.

7. Write one sentence in which the verb asserts action; one in which it asserts being; one in which it asserts state or condition; one in which it asserts possession; two, in each of which the verb asserts an attribute of the subject, one expressed by an adjective and one by a substantive.

LII. EXERCISE IN USE OF IRREGULAR VERBS

1. For a list of irregular verbs, see Appendix B.

The *s*-form and the present participle form are omitted in the list. The former may be formed by adding *s* to the name form, and the latter by adding *ing* to the name form.

2. Pupils should have abundant practice in the use of the forms of irregular verbs. For this one purpose it will be profitable for pupils to fill with the correct forms of many verbs such blanks as these:

1. He ——— to-day. 3. He ——— ——— now.
2. They ——— to-day. 4. He ——— yesterday.

EXAMPLES: 1. He begins to-day. 2. They begin to-day. 3. He is beginning now. 4. He began yesterday.

3. The drill suggested in paragraph 2 will, in a limited way, acquaint pupils with the use of verb forms, and is therefore worth while if nothing better can be done. But this result, as well as some others of great value, can be accomplished by *varying* the forms of sentences, thus:

1. He who *begins* by doing small things well may learn how to do great things. 2. Some people *begin* life with poor opportunities and yet achieve great success. 3. Lincoln *began* life under adverse circumstances. 4. We may often avoid the necessity for haste by *beginning* early. 5. A task well *begun* is half done.

4. Ten or more lessons in exercises suggested under 3 may be prepared and recited with profit. See Lessons LXI to LXIII, Part One.

LIII. COMPLEMENTS OF VERBS

1. Notice that in each of these sentences the verb forms a complete predicate without the aid of any other word:

- | | |
|----------------|------------------|
| 1. Boys run. | 3. Kittens play. |
| 2. Girls sing. | 4. Fish swim. |

Such verbs are called *verbs of complete predication*, and, by some authors, *complete verbs*.

2. Notice that in each of these sentences the verb requires some other word or words to complete the predicate:

1. The hawk caught *the chicken*.

2. The child looks *pale*.

Such verbs are called *verbs of incomplete predication*, and, by some authors, *incomplete verbs*.

That which is added to complete the predication is called a *complement*. Refer to dictionary for meaning of *complement*.

3. Some verbs of incomplete predication require (1) an adjective expressing an attribute of the subject, or (2) a noun, pronoun, or other substantive denoting the same person or thing as the subject. The complement in either of these cases is called an *attribute complement*, or *subjective complement*.

4. Some verbs of incomplete predication require a noun, pronoun, or other substantive denoting the person or thing that receives, or is affected by, the action expressed by the verb.

The complement in this case is called an *object complement*.

5. It will of course be noticed that *attribute complement*, or *subjective complement*, is only another name for either *predicate adjective*, or *predicate noun*; and that the *object complement* is simply the *object* of the verb.

6. In the case of verbs that take a subjective complement, some authors call the subjective complement the predicate, and they call the verb the *copula*. For example, in the sentence,

Men are mortal,

these authors say that *Men* is the subject, *mortal* is the predicate, and *are* is the copula, joining or linking the predicate to the subject. The word *copula* means a *link*.

A verb that may be used as a copula is called a *copulative verb*.

It may be noted that these grammarians are, on this point, in accord with logicians. Still most grammarians do not deem it necessary or advisable to make this distinction in a treatise on grammar.

The verb *be* is the only *pure copulative verb* in the language; but other verbs that take subjective complements are called copulative verbs.

7. Point out the object complements, the subjective complements, and the copulative verbs in these sentences:

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. The child seems sick. | 7. The grass looks green. |
| 2. Pigs drink swill. | 8. The weevil destroyed the grain. |
| 3. Adams was president. | 9. I have a body. |
| 4. Roses smell sweet. | 10. I am a mind. |
| 5. The cloth feels smooth. | 11. Liberty is precious. |
| 6. Mice gnawed the box. | 12. Socrates was a philosopher. |

LIV. VOICE

1. Notice these sentences:

1. Bancroft wrote the history.
2. The history was written by Bancroft.

In the first sentence, is *wrote* transitive or intransitive? Why? See Lesson LI, 2. What is the object? The subject?

In the second sentence, is *was written* transitive or intransitive? Why? What receives the action expressed in the verb? What is the subject?

2. Now study the following:

1. The Chinese eat rice.
2. Rice is eaten by the Chinese.

In regard to these sentences answer questions similar to those asked under 1. See Lesson LI, 2.

3. Now study these:

1. Gates defeated Burgoyne.
2. Burgoyne was defeated by Gates.

Note (1) that all the verbs used are transitive; (2) that in the first sentence of each pair the subject names the *actor*, and in the second, the subject names the person or thing that receives the act expressed by the verb; (3) that the verb in each case shows by its form whether the subject names the actor or the recipient of the action.

DEFINITIONS:

Voice is that modification of a transitive verb which shows whether the subject names the actor, or the recipient of the action expressed by the verb.

The Active Voice is that form of the verb which shows that the subject denotes the actor.

The Passive Voice is that form of the verb which shows that the subject denotes the recipient of the action.

4. State the voice of the verb in each sentence given under 1, 2, and 3.

5. In the first sentence in each pair given under 1, 2, and 3, state the object. State the subject of the second sentence in each case. In each case the object of the verb in the active voice becomes the subject of the verb in the passive voice. Only

transitive verbs can have objects. Hence only transitive verbs can be put in the passive voice. As intransitive verbs can not be used in the passive voice, they are said to have no voice. Only transitive verbs have voice.

6. Explain the voice of each verb in these sentences:

1. Washington defeated Cornwallis at Yorktown.
2. Milton wrote "Paradise Lost."
3. A victory was won by Greene.
4. He spent his substance in riotous living.
5. The crops were eaten by grasshoppers.
6. "The Angelus" was painted by Millet.
7. The railroad was built by Americans.
8. Galileo invented the telescope.

Copy the foregoing sentences, changing the voice of each verb.

7. Write three sentences containing verbs in the active voice; three containing verbs in the passive voice.

LV. MODE, OR MOOD¹

1. *Mode* means *manner*. In grammar *mode* means the *manner of asserting*, or, the form of the verb adapted to a manner of asserting.

¹ Grammarians do not agree as to the number of Modes in the English verb. Some name and define only two, some three, some four, and others five. This author thinks it not necessary to distinguish the Potential and the Indicative Mode. He is also aware of (1) the fact that the forms that constitute the Subjunctive Mode have but a limited use in modern English, and (2) the fact that the tendency is toward the disuse of these forms. Yet he has chosen to give the *five modes* in order that pupils may not be uninformed as to what other authors teach on this subject.

2. Study the manner of asserting in each of these sentences:

1. John *learns* his lessons.
2. John *could learn* his lessons.
3. John, *learn* your lessons.
4. If John *learn* his lessons, he will be excused.
5. John desires *to learn* his lessons.
6. John has a desire *to learn* his lessons.
7. John, *learning* his lessons easily, often forgets them quickly.

(a) In the first sentence, the verb *asserts directly* the fact that John learns.

(b) In the second, it is stated that John could learn, or that he has the ability to learn, but it is *not asserted* as a fact that he does learn.

(c) In the third, a command is conveyed in the verb *learn*.

(d) In the fourth, the learning is represented as a condition.

(e) In the fifth and sixth sentences, the act of learning is not asserted, but it is *named* in a *form* of the verb which in the fifth does the work of a noun, and in the sixth the work of an adjective.

(f) In the seventh sentence the act of learning is not asserted; it is merely *assumed* in a *variation* of the verb.

DEFINITIONS:

The form of the verb used to assert a fact is called the Indicative Mode, or Mood. The Indicative mode is also used in asking a direct question; as, Does John learn?

The Potential Mode is the form of the verb used to indicate power, necessity, liberty, duty, obligation, etc.; as, John could learn his lessons.

The Imperative Mode is the form of the verb used to make a command or entreaty; as in the third sentence under 2.

The Subjunctive Mode is the form of the verb used in dependent clauses expressing doubt, condition, or purpose, or implying denial.

EXAMPLES: 1. *If he accuse me*, I shall defend myself.

2. *If I were he*, I should act differently.

The dependent clause in the first sentence expresses *doubt*. The subjunctive form, *he accuse*, instead of the indicative form, *he accuses*, shows the doubt. In the second sentence, the clause *If I were he* very clearly implies a denial. It means this: If I were he (but I am not he). The subjunctive form, "*I were*," implies the denial.

3. The infinitive and the participle lack the power of asserting. They are therefore called *verbals*, not *verbs*.

The *Infinitive* can not be properly called a *mode*; for *mode* means manner of *asserting*, and the infinitive does not assert. At best, it merely *assumes* action, being, etc., while a finite verb *asserts* action, being, etc.

DEFINITION:

The Infinitive is a form of the verb, usually preceded by to, which, lacking the power of asserting but still showing the nature of the verb, is so used as to do the work of some other part of speech, usually that of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

See fifth and sixth sentences under 2.

4. The word *learning* in the seventh sentence is called a *Parti-*

cipl. The participle is not a mode, because it has not the power of asserting.

DEFINITION:

A Participle is a variation of the verb, usually partaking of the nature of the verb and adjective or of the verb and noun.

The word *participle* means *partaking*.

5. Write a sentence containing a verb in the indicative mode; one containing a verb in the potential mode; one containing a verb in the imperative mode; one containing a verb in the subjunctive mode; one containing an infinitive; one containing a participle.

LVI. TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

1. We have learned that in grammar *tense* means *time*. The word *tense* is applied to *verb forms* to denote the time to which they usually refer.

2. There are three divisions of time: *Present*, *Past*, and *Future*.

3. There are three *Absolute Tenses*: *Present Tense*, *Past Tense*, and *Future Tense*.

EXAMPLES:

Present Tense. John *learns* (now, to-day, at present).

Past Tense. John *learned* (then, yesterday, in the past).

Future Tense. John *will learn* (then, to-morrow, in the future).

4. To express nice distinctions, however, we have these six regular tense forms in the indicative mode:

Present Time { 1. John *learns*.
2. John *has learned*.

Past Time { 3. John *learned*.
4. John *had learned*.

Future Time { 5. John *will learn*.
6. John *will have learned*.

The first, third, and fifth are called the *Absolute Tenses*.

The second, fourth, and sixth are called the *Relative Tenses*.

5. The *Relative Tenses* denote *completed* action, etc. They are therefore usually called *Perfect Tenses*.

6. The *Present Perfect Tense* asserts something as completed at the present; as, John *has learned*.

7. The *Past Perfect Tense* asserts something as completed in the past; as, John *had learned* his lesson when (or before) the bell rang.

The past perfect tense is sometimes called the *pluperfect tense*.

8. The *Future Perfect Tense* asserts something as completed in the future; as, John *will have learned* his lesson by (or before) noon.

Note that the past perfect tense usually asserts something as *completed at or before some past time designated*, and that the future perfect tense asserts something as *completed at or before some future time designated*. See 7 and 8.

9. In the following sentences, classify the verbs as to form (regular or irregular) and meaning (transitive or intransitive), tell the voice of each transitive verb, and give the tense of each verb.

1. James came.
2. The pail was made by a tinner.
3. He will have gone before Friday.
4. Wendell loves his mother.

5. Wendell is loved by his mother.
6. The thief will be caught by the sheriff.
7. He had finished his task when we came.
8. A tailor made the coat.
9. Mary reads well.
10. Henry has gone.

LVII. MODIFYING TENSE FORMS IN THE INDICATIVE

1. The English language perhaps excels any other in number and variety of forms adapted to the expression of different shades of meaning. In the last lesson were given the regular tense forms of the indicative mode. Sometimes it is desirable, however, not only to denote the absolute or relative time of an occurrence, but also to indicate emphasis, negation, interrogation, etc. For these purposes other modifying forms are used. Most of these forms are shown in the following

SYNOPSIS.

<i>Tense</i>	{ <i>Present</i>	{ <i>Present</i>	He rides. (Indefinite.)
			He is riding. (Progressive.)
			He does ride. (Emphatic.)
			Does he ride? (Interrogative.)
			He does not ride. (Negative.)
	{ <i>Present Perfect</i>	{	He has ridden. (Complete.)
			He has been riding. (Progressive.)
			He has not ridden. (Negative.)
			Has he ridden? (Interrogative.)

<i>Tense</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past</i>	He rode. (Indefinite.)
			He did ride. (Emphatic.)
			He was riding. (Progressive.)
			Did he ride? (Interrogative.)
			He did not ride. (Negative.)
	<i>Past Perfect</i>	<i>Past</i>	He had ridden. (Indefinite.)
			He had been riding. (Progressive.)
			He had not ridden. (Negative.)
			Had he ridden? (Interrogative.)
	<i>Future</i>	<i>Future</i>	He will ride. (Indefinite.)
			He will be riding. (Progressive.)
			He will not ride. (Negative.)
			Will he ride? (Interrogative.)
		<i>Future Perfect</i>	He will have ridden. (Indefinite.)
			He will have been riding. (Progressive.)
			He will not have ridden. (Negative.)
			Will he have ridden? (Interrogative.)

Pupils should note that in some cases the modification is made by inflection, and in others by changing the order of the words. Point out illustrations.

2. In succession, substitute the following words for the pronoun *he* and recite to the teacher the foregoing synopsis, making the necessary inflections:

I	we	you
they	Mary and I	Mary and John

3. In succession, substitute the following verbs for the verb *ride*, and recite the synopsis to the teacher:

sing	go	write	eat
------	----	-------	-----

LVIII. TENSES IN THE POTENTIAL MODE

1. The *Potential Mode* has four tenses: *Present*, *Present Perfect*, *Past*, and *Past Perfect*.

2. The following are given as the signs of the potential mode: *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*.

3. *May*, *can*, and *must*, are said to be the signs of the present tense; as, I *may* write. He *can* go. We *must* stay.

4. *Might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* are said to be the signs of the past tense; as, I *might* write. He *could* go. We *should* stay. He *would* leave.

5. *May*, *can*, and *must*, followed by *have*, are called the signs of the present perfect tense; as, He *may have* gone. He *must have* stayed.

6. *Might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, followed by *have*, are given as the signs of the past perfect tense; as, He *might have* gone. He *should have* remained.

7. The several tense forms of the potential mode are shown in this

SYNOPSIS.

Present Tense. He may, can, or must ride.

Present Perfect Tense. He may, can, or must have ridden.

Past Tense. He might, could, would, or should ride.

Past Perfect Tense. He might, could, would, or should have ridden.

8. The potential mode forms are also used in asking questions; as, *Can* he ride? *May* I go?

9. Write a synopsis of the verb *write* in the potential mode, using *we* as the subject; write a synopsis with the verb *sing*, using *you* as the subject; change the statements in your last synopsis to questions.

10. It should be noted that the tense forms given for the potential mode do not always accord with the corresponding divisions of time. For example, *should* is given as one of the signs of the *past tense* in this mode; but *should* does not always refer to past time.

EXAMPLE: *Children, you should obey your parents.*

This refers, not to the past, but to the present and future. *Could* is also given as the past tense of *can*, and *might* as the past tense of *may*, etc. *Might* is a variation of *may*, *could* is a variation of *can*, and *should* is a variation of *shall*; but, in modern English at least, it is an evident error to class *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* as *past tenses*, using *tense* in its ordinary meaning.

LIX. TENSES IN THE OTHER MODES

1. The *Imperative Mode* is used in making a command, order, request, exhortation, prayer, etc. Commands are made in the *present time*. The command is executed, if at all, *after* the command is given; that is, *in the future*, immediate or remote. The command may, in fact, be given with a view to execution in the future; as, *Pupils, bring your books to school to-morrow*. Still, as the command is given at present, the verb is said to be in the present tense. It is always the name form of the verb.

2. The *Imperative Mode* has but one tense, the *Present*.

3. The *Subjunctive Mode* has six tenses, the same as the indicative.

4. The *Infinitive* has two tenses, *Present* and *Present Perfect*.

EXAMPLE: *To ride*, Present; *To have ridden*, Present Perfect.

LX. PERSON AND NUMBER IN VERBS

1. Notice the inflection of the verb in these sentences:

1. I *am* here.

3. He *is* here.

2. Thou *art* here.

4. We *are* here.

Notice that as the subject changes in *number* and *person* the verb changes in *form*.

DEFINITION:

By Person and Number in the verb we mean its modification to denote its agreement with the subject.

2. Here is an old rule that is found in almost all grammars:

RULE:

A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

So far as *inflection* is concerned, this rule has only a limited application in modern English, for the reason that the modern English verb has almost no inflection to mark person and number.

3. Leaving out the verb *be* and a few old forms of other verbs, the *s* found in the third person singular of the present and present perfect tenses of the indicative, is the *only ending* now used to mark person and number forms. But in inflected languages the verb generally changes its form to show its agreement both in person and in number with its subject. Because this general rule of language holds true in the few inflected forms of the English verb, we still preserve it, as stated in 2.

4. The imperative mode regularly ¹ has but one person, the second. It has both numbers. Verbals have neither person nor number. Other modes have the three persons and both numbers.

¹ For irregular imperative forms, see Lesson LII, Part Three.

LXI. NOTIONAL AND AUXILIARY VERBS

1. In the following sentences, notice which of the italicized verbs express meanings of their own, and which merely assist other verbs in expressing their meanings:

1. The pupil *has* two pencils.
2. The pupil *has* written his lesson.
3. Fathers *will* their estates to their sons.
4. The son *will* inherit his father's estate.

Observe (1) that in the first sentence, *has* expresses a meaning of its own—the *notion* of ownership or possession; and (2) that in the second sentence, the principal notion is expressed in *written*, while *has* merely helps to express this meaning. Observe also that in the third sentence, *will* expresses a meaning or notion of its own, while in the fourth sentence, *will* merely helps *inherit* to express its meaning.

2. A verb that expresses a meaning or *notion* of its own is called a *notional verb*, or a *principal verb*.

3. A verb that is used to help another verb express its meaning is called an *auxiliary verb*. *Auxiliary* means *helping* or *aiding*.

4. Notice, from sentences given under 1, that *have* and *will* are sometimes used as *notional* verbs and sometimes as *auxiliary* verbs. This is likewise true of *do* and *be*.

5. Point out the notional verbs and the auxiliary verbs in these sentences:

1. I shall go to church Sunday.
2. He will do his duty.
3. They do their work well.

4. They do study hard.
5. They did their duty.
6. They did try.
7. They can learn.
8. They could learn.
9. They must go.
10. They should remain.
11. The letters were on the table.
12. The letters were written neatly.
13. He had two books.
14. He had prepared his lesson.
15. He wills that I go.

6. *Must*, *do* and its past form *did*, *shall* and its variation *should*, *can* and its variation *could*, *may* and its variation *might*, *will* and its variation *would*, and all the variations of *be* and *have* are used as *auxiliary verbs*.

LXII. CONJUGATION OF AUXILIARY VERBS

1. The *inflection* of verbs is called *conjugation*.

DEFINITION :

Conjugation is the orderly arrangement of all the forms of a verb with reference to voice, mode, tense, number, and person.

2. CONJUGATION OF *Do*.

		<i>Past</i>		<i>Present</i>
<i>Name</i>	<i>Form</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Participle</i>	<i>Participle</i>
<i>Do</i>	does	did	done	doing

INDICATIVE MODE

<i>Present Tense</i>		<i>Past Tense</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I do	We do	1. I did	We did
2. Thou dost	You do	2. Thou didst	You did
3. He does	They do	3. He did	They did
<i>or doth</i>			

3. *Do*, as a notional verb, is found in both voices, in all the modes, tenses, and persons, and in both numbers.

4. *Do*, as an auxiliary verb, is used with the name form of a notional verb in the emphatic, negative, and interrogative forms of the indicative present; *did* is similarly used in the indicative past. See Synopsis under Lesson LVII.

5. *Do*, as an auxiliary, is also used with the name form of a notional verb in the emphatic imperative; as, *Do behave. Do get your lessons.*

6. CONJUGATION OF *Have*.

<i>Name Form</i>	<i>S-Form</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>
			<i>Participle</i>	<i>Participle</i>
Have	has	had	had	having

INDICATIVE MODE

<i>Present Tense</i>		<i>Past Tense</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have	We have	1. I had	We had
2. Thou hast	You have	2. Thou hadst	You had
3. He has	They have	3. He had	They had
<i>or hath</i>			

7. *Have*, as a notional verb, is found in all modes, tenses, etc.

8. *Have*, as an auxiliary verb, is used (1) with the past parti-

ciple of a notional verb in forming the present perfect tenses; (2) with the auxiliary *will* or *shall* and the past participle of a notional verb in forming the future perfect tense; (3) with *to* and the past participle of a notional verb in forming the perfect infinitive.

9. *Had*, as an auxiliary, is used with the past participles of notional verbs in forming the past perfect tenses.

NOTE: *Has* is a shortened form of *haves*, *ha(ve)s*; *had*, of *haved*; *hath*, of *haveth*; and *hast*, of *havest*.

10. CONJUGATION OF *Will* AND *Shall*.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	{ shall will	1. We	{ shall will
2. Thou	{ wilt shalt	2. You	{ will shall
3. He	{ will shall	3. They	{ will shall

POTENTIAL MODE

*Past Tense*¹

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	{ should would	1. We	{ should would
2. Thou	{ wouldst shouldst	2. You	{ would should
3. He	{ would should	3. They	{ would should

¹ See Lesson LVIII, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 10.

11. *Shall* and *should* are used only as auxiliary verbs.
12. *Will*, as a notional verb, is used in all modes, tenses, etc.
13. *Will* and *shall*, as auxiliary verbs, are used (1) with the *name forms* of notional verbs, to form the future indicative; and (2) with *have* and the past participles of notional verbs, to form the future perfect indicative.
14. For uses of *will* and *shall*, and *would* and *should*, see Lessons LXXVII and LXXVIII.

LXIII. CONJUGATION OF *BE*

1. *Be*, as a notional verb, is used in all modes, tenses, etc. Its uses as an auxiliary will be considered later.

2. CONJUGATION.

Name	Form	S-Form	Past	Participle	Present Participle
Be		is	was	been	being

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense		Past Tense	
Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1. I am	We are	1. I was	We were
2. Thou art	You are	2. Thou wast	You were
3. He is	They are	3. He was	They were

3. Write present perfect indicative forms of *be*.

For use of the auxiliary *have* in this tense, see Lesson LXII, 8, (1), and Note under 9.

4. Write the past perfect indicative forms of *be*. For use of auxiliary *had* in this tense, see Lesson LXII, 9.

5. Write the future indicative forms of *be*. For use of *shall* and *will* as auxiliaries in this tense, see Lesson LXII, 13, (1), and 14.

6. Write the future perfect indicative forms of *be*. For use of *shall* and *will* as auxiliaries in this tense, see Lesson LXII, 13, (2), and 14.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS: In teaching conjugation, some teachers require pupils to commit to memory, with but little or no reflection as to use, the entire paradigm, and to recite it orally *verbatim* as a whole. Under this plan, the average pupil will feel that the conjugation is an abstract something, a matter foreign to his life and without interest to him. To learn it is a task to be dreaded. He may commit it and recite it; but, as it is meaningless, it soon fades from memory and is gone. Other teachers, seeing that conjugations learned as just stated are soon forgotten, conclude that it is useless to teach conjugation at all, and they refuse to teach it. In the opinion of the author, both these plans are erroneous. Conjugation should be taught; but it should be taught properly. Pupils should be led to see that a conjugation is but the orderly arrangement of language forms with the use of which they are well acquainted. They should be led to discover that they are able to build up for themselves the conjugation of any verb. This, in fact, is precisely what they should do. Then conjugating a verb will be a matter of understanding, not of memory.

The full conjugations of *be* and *know* may be found in Appendix C, to which reference may be made when necessary.

LXIV. CONJUGATION OF *GO*¹

1. Write the conjugation of the verb *go* for the six tenses of the indicative mode.
2. Write the conjugation of *go* for the potential mode.
3. Conjugate the verb *go* in the subjunctive mode.
4. Give all the forms of *go* for the imperative mode.
5. Give the verbals of *go*.

LXV. USES OF *BE* AS AN AUXILIARY

1. The passive voice forms of any transitive verb are constructed by placing the *past participle* of the verb after the corresponding

¹ If necessary, see active voice forms of *know* as conjugated in Appendix C.

forms of the verb *be*. For example, the passive voice form of the verb *see*, for the indicative, present, third, singular, is *is seen*, which is made up of *seen*, the *past participle* of the verb *see*, and *is*, the indicative, present, third, singular, of *be*.

2. Write the conjugation, in the passive voice, of the verb *see* for the six tenses of the indicative mode.

3. Give the passive voice conjugation of *see* in the potential mode.

4. Give the passive conjugation of *see* for the subjunctive mode.

5. Give the conjugation for the passive imperative of *see*.

6. Give the passive forms of the verbals of *see*.

LXVI. SYNOPSES

DEFINITION:

A Synopsis is an orderly arrangement of all the forms of a verb with reference to voice, mode, and tense in one person and one number.

What is the difference between a conjugation and a synopsis?

1. Write a synopsis of the verb *see*, using the third person, singular number.¹

2. Recite, in the progressive form, a synopsis of the verb *catch*, using the first person, plural number.¹

3. Recite, in the interrogative form, a synopsis of the verb *take*, using the second person, plural number.

4. Recite a synopsis of the verb *go*.²

¹ Are there any imperative mode forms in this synopsis? Why?

² Are the passive voice forms included in this synopsis? Why?

LXVII. MODE FORMS AND USES

1. A careful inspection of the mode forms as shown in the conjugations given in Appendix C will enable the student to discover wherein these forms differ in inflection, and, in a measure, as to use. Such an inspection should be made.

2. It will be seen that many of the subjunctive forms are identical with corresponding indicative forms; others are the same as the potential forms. It is important to give special attention to the difference between indicative and subjunctive forms in the present, present perfect, and past tenses.

3. As has been stated, indicative forms are used in direct assertions of facts, either positive or negative, and in direct questions inquiring about facts. As contrasted with these, subjunctive forms are used mainly in subordinate clauses expressing doubt, condition, or purpose, or implying denial. These clauses deserve special study.

4. Notice that in each of these sentences the subordinate clause expresses doubt, or condition, or purpose:

1. *If it rain to-morrow*, I shall not go.
2. *If there be a policeman in the audience*, let him come forward.
3. *If he deny my statement*, I shall prove it.
4. *If I be given a fair trial*, I shall be acquitted.
5. Judge not, *that ye be not judged*.
6. He should strive hard, *lest he fail*.

Note (1) that the subjunctive present tense form used in each of these cases is the *name form* of the verb; (2) that most of these clauses of doubt, condition, or purpose, suggest future time.

Most grammarians justify this use of subjunctive forms. Many,

though not all, good writers and speakers, follow this usage. Perhaps the tendency is towards the disuse of these forms, and the substitution of indicative forms; as, 1. If it *rains* to-morrow, etc. 2. If there *is* a policeman, etc. The writer thinks this tendency should be discouraged.

5. Notice that in each of these sentences a *denial* is clearly implied in the subordinate clause:

1. If I *were* he (but I am not), I should go.
2. If I *thought* him honest (but I do not), I should defend him.
3. If he *were* a Bedouin (but he is not), he could not be more savage.
4. I wish that he *were* here (but he is not).

Note (1) that in clauses implying denial, the *past form* of the verb is always used, though reference is made not to past time, but to present time; (2) that *were* is the only form of the verb *be* (except *wert* with *thou*) that may be correctly used. So far as the writer knows, all authors agree as to the correctness of this usage.

LXVIII. MODE FORMS AND USES (CONTINUED)

1. Notice the nature of the subordinate clause in each of these:

1. If he *is* an Indian, he should be treated justly.
2. If he *is* old, he is still active.

Note (1) that each of these clauses expresses a supposition admitted or conceded to be true; (2) that the verb has the indicative form. A clause of this kind is called a *concessive* clause.

2. Sometimes we find a subjunctive form in an abridged sentence; as,

1. O that the day *were* done!
2. Would that he *were* here.

These sentences clearly mean:

1. I wish that the day were done.
2. I wish that he were here.

Hence the subjunctive forms here used are accounted for in 5 of Lesson LXVII. How?

3. It has been seen that the subjunctive forms are used mainly in subordinate clauses, often called *subjoined* clauses. Hence the name *subjunctive*.

4. Point out the subordinate clauses, tell whether each expresses doubt, condition, purpose, or concession, or implies denial, and state whether the verb has the indicative or the subjunctive form:¹

1. I wish I were a boy again.
2. If it is true, you need not tell it.
3. If I am a Roman, I am ashamed of Rome.
4. If it were so, I would have told you.
5. If he come in time, I shall employ him.
6. I wish he were my friend.
7. He should take heed lest he fall.
8. I will trust him though he slay me.
9. If it be true, it will be found out.
10. Unless he go, I shall go.

5. Write two sentences containing clauses expressing doubt; two expressing condition; two expressing purpose; two expressing concession; two implying denial.

¹ If necessary, the teacher should supplement this exercise with sentences taken from other sources. The distinctions here illustrated are important, and should be learned thoroughly.

LXIX. FORMS AND USES OF THE INFINITIVE

1. The infinitive has voice and tense, but not mode, person, or number.

2. The word *infinitive* means *unlimited*. The infinitive form of the verb is *unlimited* as to person and number; that is, it has no person or number forms or uses.

NOTE: Verbs that have person and number are called *finite verbs*.

3. The infinitive has two tenses: the present and the present perfect. For forms, see conjugations, Appendix C.

4. The present tense is the name form of the verb, usually preceded by *to*. The present perfect tense is the past participle of the verb, preceded by *to have*.

5. The *to* is usually omitted in the present tense, active voice, after these verbs: bid, dare, feel, see, hear, let, and some others.

EXAMPLES: 1. Let him (to) go. 2. I heard him (to) say it.

To is also omitted after the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, and *will*, and their variations.

EXAMPLES: 1. He may (to) go, meaning, He has permission to go. 2. He can (to) sing, meaning, He is able to sing.

6. The infinitive usually performs the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

EXAMPLES: 1. *To lie* is base (noun). 2. A hothouse is a trap *to catch* sunbeams (adjective). 3. Ripe apples are good *to eat* (adverb).

Explain: why *to lie* is a substantive; wherein *to catch* is like an adjective in use; how *to eat* fills the office of an adverb.

7. While the infinitive fills the office of a noun, adjective, or adverb, it still retains in part the nature of the verb, as will be seen in these cases:

(a) The infinitive of a transitive verb may take an object like a verb.

EXAMPLE: Sportsmen like to catch game fish.

The object of *like* is *to catch game fish*. What is the object of *to catch*?

(b) An infinitive, like a verb, may be modified by an adverb.

EXAMPLE: We should learn to think quickly and correctly, and to act promptly and wisely.

How is *to think* modified? *To act*?

(c) An infinitive of a copulative verb may be followed by an adjective or a substantive expressing an attribute of the assumed subject¹ of the infinitive.

EXAMPLES: 1. The teacher asked the pupils to be attentive. What does *attentive* modify? 2. The witness said, "I believe this man to be the thief."

The noun *thief* is used after the infinitive *to be* to complete the meaning, and it denotes the same person as *man*, the assumed subject¹ of *to be*. These cases closely resemble the use of the predicate adjective or noun with finite forms of copulative verbs.

LXX. FORMS AND USES OF THE INFINITIVE

(CONTINUED)

1. The infinitive usually has no subject expressed or understood. Its subject is often indeterminate.

EXAMPLES: 1. To tell the truth is noble.

2. It is noble to tell the truth.

2. When the infinitive has an assumed subject,¹ the subject is in the objective case.

EXAMPLE: I believe *him* to be honest.

¹ See Lesson XXVIII, 6, Part Three.

The object of *believe* here is *him to be honest*, and *him* is the assumed subject of the infinitive *to be*.

A *subject* is that of which something is *asserted* by a finite verb; an *assumed subject* is that of which something is *assumed* by an infinitive.

Pupils should not fail to note this point of difference between the infinitive and the finite forms of verbs. Notice these sentences:

1. I believe *he is* honest.
2. I believe *him to be* honest.

The distinction is apparent in the use of pronouns, but not in the use of nouns, because the nominative form of a noun is the same as the objective form.

3. The same distinction should be noted in regard to predicate pronouns.

EXAMPLES: 1. I believe it *is he*.

2. I believe it *to be him*.

RULE:¹

As a rule, the noun or pronoun following any form of a copulative verb, and denoting the same person or thing as the subject or the assumed subject, is in the same case as the subject or the assumed subject.

Such sentences as the following are correct and are in accord with the rule just stated: It seems to be *he*.

The subject *It* here represents some person under consideration. The sentence means, This person seems to be *he*. The predicate pronoun *he* means the same person as the subject of the finite verb *seems*. As the subject is in the nominative case, *he* is the correct form for the predicate pronoun. True, the com-

¹For a single exception to this rule, see Lesson LXXII, 5.

plex copula is *seems to be*, but the essential fact is that *seems*, the principal element of the copula, is *finite* and therefore takes a subject and predicate pronoun both in the nominative case. This case should not be confused with those referred to under 2.

4. Explain the construction, and account for the case form, of each italicized noun and pronoun in these sentences:

1. I believe *he* is untruthful.

2. I believe *him* to be untruthful.

What is the object of *believe* in the first sentence? In the second? The subject of *is*? The assumed subject of *to be*?

3. I believe this *man* is *he*.

4. I believe this *man* to be *him*.

5. I believe *he* is the *man*.

6. I believe *him* to be the *man*.

7. Do men think *I* am *he*?

8. Do men think *me* to be *him*?

9. *Who* do men think *I* am?

10. *Whom* do men think *me* to be?

NOTE: 9 may be arranged thus: Men think *I* am *who*? And 10, thus: Men think *me* to be *whom*?

11. *It* is said to be *he*.

12. They took *her* to be *me*.

13. It appears to have been *he*.

5. Give the construction of each infinitive in these sentences.

LXXI. FORMS AND USES OF PARTICIPLES

1. What is a participle?

2. Participles have voice and tense forms, but not mode, person, or number forms. See Conjugations, Appendix C.

3. How many participles has an intransitive verb? What are they? Give the participles of the verb *swim*.

4. How many participles has a transitive verb? What are they? Give the participles of the verb *see*.

5. The present participle, in its verbal nature, denotes unfinished action, etc.; as, *seeing, hearing*.

6. The past participle, in its verbal nature, denotes finished action, etc.; as, *seen, heard*.

7. The present participle may fill the office of an adjective or a noun; as, We spent an hour in *watching*¹ the *falling* snow.

What is the object of the preposition *in*? What word modifies the noun *snow*? *Watching*, in its verbal nature, expresses action like a verb; it also does the work of a noun as the object of *in*. *Falling* expresses action like a verb, and also modifies the noun *snow*, like an adjective.

The forms just noted should be distinguished from the *verbal noun* ending in *ing*, as used in this sentence: The *falling* of the snow is interesting to children. Here the word *falling* is used merely as the *name of the action*. It is therefore simply a common noun, but as it is derived from a verb and names an action, it is classed as a *verbal noun*.

8. The past participle is used as an adjective; as,

1. Truth, *crushed* to earth, shall rise again.

2. Time *spent* is existence; *used*, is life.

What does *crushed* modify? *Spent*? *Used*?

9. Point out all the participles and the verbal nouns in the following sentences, and give the construction of each:

¹ Some grammarians call the participle, used as *watching* is here used, the *gerund*; others, the *infinitive in ing*; others, the *participial infinitive*.

1. He was punished for breaking his promise.
2. The thief, running swiftly, escaped his pursuers.
3. The king, betrayed by his enemies, fled to his castle.
4. An officer, riding up, told us the news.
5. The boys were accused of breaking windows and of doing other mischief.
6. The windows, broken by the explosion, fell to the ground.
7. Being weary, I sat down to rest.
8. The train, turning a curve, was thrown from the track.
9. A corporal was shot for deserting his regiment.
10. Grinding scissors is his trade.
11. Driving their flocks, the Arabs crossed the great plain.
12. Reading fine print tires the eyes.
13. He was never accused of being too liberal.
14. His amusement is skating.
15. Having money in his pocket, he was independent.

LXXII. NOUNS AND PRONOUNS USED WITH INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES, AND NOUNS AND PRONOUNS USED INDEPENDENTLY

1. The active infinitive of a transitive verb may take an object; as,

1. To know *her* is to love *her*.

2. I remember to have met *him* once.

2. The assumed subject of an infinitive is in the objective case;¹ as,

We invited *them* to go.

¹See Lesson LXX, 1 and 2.

3. An active participle derived from a transitive verb, may take an object; *as*,

Seeing *him* reminded me of you.

The subject of *reminded* is *seeing him*. *Him* is in the objective case, the object of *seeing*.

4. Notice the use of the pronoun with the participle in this sentence:

He having invited us, we came.

About the same meaning may be expressed in this form:

Because he invited us, we came.

In this sentence the subordinate clause, *Because he invited us*, fills the grammatical office of an adverb, modifying the verb *came*. Omitting the connective *because*, and changing the verb *invited* into the participle *having invited*, the subordinate clause becomes this expression: *He having invited us*. This expression has no grammatical connection with the principal clause, *we came*. Such expressions are said to be *absolute*, and the noun or pronoun used in such an expression is usually said to be in the *case absolute*, or the *nominative case absolute*.¹ A noun or pronoun so used takes the name form.

5. The *nominative absolute* should not be confused with such a construction as is shown in either of these sentences:

1. He, having invited us, greeted us cordially.

2. His having invited us caused us to come.

In the first of these two sentences, the participle *having invited*, in its adjective nature, modifies *he*, the subject of the sentence. In the second, *His having invited us* is the subject of *caused*. But the *absolute* expression given under 4, *He having invited us*,

¹ Strictly speaking, a noun or pronoun so used *has no case*.

has no *grammatical* connection with the sentence *we came*. *Logically* it explains why we came.

It should be observed, too, that, in the last sentence given, the possessive form of the pronoun *his*, is correctly used. It would be incorrect to use *he* or *him* in that place. *His* is the assumed subject of *having invited*. For explanation of this construction, see 11, Lesson XXIII, Part Three, and 7, Lesson XXVIII, Part Three.

6. The name of a person or thing addressed is said to be in the nominative case by *address*; as, *John*, bring me the book.

7. In this sentence from Tennyson,

Tears, idle tears, I know not what they mean,
the word *tears* is said to be in the nominative case by *pleonasm*.

8. In the following couplet from Longfellow, the words *Ship* and *Union* are by some said to be in the nominative case by *exclamation*, and by others in the nominative case by *address*:

Sail on, sail on, O Ship of State!

Sail on, O Union, strong and great!

9. In regard to cases noticed under 4, 6, 7, and 8, it should be observed (1) that all these nouns and pronouns have the nominative (or name) form; (2) that in syntax they are independent of the rest of the sentence and really have no case. These two facts are important. The names given may serve to distinguish the different uses of the nouns and pronouns, but otherwise these names are unimportant.

10. Explain the construction, and account for the case form of each italicized noun and pronoun in these sentences:

1. The *sun* having risen, the mist disappeared.
2. The *rising* of the sun dispelled the mist.
3. The *sun's rising* dispelled the mist.

4. The *boy*, spurring *his horse*, rode on.
5. The *boy's writing* the letter so neatly secured the position.

Notice that the participle *writing* as a verb takes the object *letter*, and as a noun is modified by the possessive *boy's*¹ and is the subject of *secured*.

6. I am aware of *his having written* a book.
7. All *silencing* of discussion is an *assumption* of *infallibility*.
8. The *cackling* of *geese* saved *Rome*.
9. The *boy*, oh! where was *he*?
10. To do no *good* is to do *harm*.
11. Sail on, O *silvery moon*.

11. Give the construction of each infinitive and participle in the foregoing sentences.

LXXIII. PARSING VERBS

To parse a verb is to state (1) Whether it is regular or irregular; (2) Its principal parts; (3) Whether it is transitive or intransitive; (4) Its voice; (5) Its mode; (6) Its tense; (7) Its person; (8) Its number; (9) Rule for person and number.

EXAMPLE 1. Homer wrote the Iliad.

Wrote asserts, hence it is a verb; its principal parts are write, wrote, written; the past tense and past participle are not formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present, hence it is irregular; it asserts an action received by an object, hence it is transitive; it shows by its form that its subject is the actor, hence it is in the active voice; it asserts something as a fact, hence it is in the indicative

¹ If preferable, we may say that the *assumed subject* of this participle has possessive form.

mode; it asserts a past act, hence it is in the past tense; it is in the third person, singular number, because its subject, *Homer*, is third person, singular number.

RULE:

A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

Shorter Form: *Wrote* is an irregular, transitive verb, active, indicative, past, third, singular. Rule.

EXAMPLE 2. *Mary can sing.*

First Form: *Can sing* is an irregular, intransitive verb, potential, present, third, singular. Rule.

Second Form: *Can* is a defective verb; its other form is *could*. It is transitive, active, indicative, present, third, singular. Rule.

Sing is an irregular, intransitive infinitive, present—to being omitted after *can*; it fills the office of a noun as the object of *can*.

EXAMPLE 3. *To lie is base.*

To lie is a regular, intransitive infinitive, present, used like a noun as the subject of *is*.

Is is an irregular copulative verb, indicative, present, third, singular, because its subject, *to lie*, is third, singular. Rule.

EXAMPLE 4. *William is studying.*

Is studying is a regular, intransitive verb, progressive form of the indicative present, third, singular, because its subject, *William*, is third, singular. Rule.

EXAMPLE 5. *Looking backward, he saw the enemy.*

Looking is the present participle from the verb *look*, used here as an adjective to modify the pronoun *he*.

Parse the verbs, infinitives, verbal nouns, and participles in the sentences given in Lesson LXXII.

LXXIV. KINDS AND USES OF PHRASES

1. Notice the italicized expressions in these sentences:

1. We spoke not a word *of sorrow*.
2. We came *to see the sights*.
3. *Observing his embarrassment*, we left.

DEFINITION :

A group of words doing the work of a single part of speech, but not containing a subject and predicate, is called a Phrase.

2. According to form, phrases are classed as *Prepositional, Infinitive, Participial*, etc.

3. A phrase introduced by a preposition is called a *Prepositional Phrase*.

4. A phrase in which the chief element is an infinitive is called an *Infinitive Phrase*.

5. A phrase containing a participle is called a *Participial Phrase*.

6. Classify as to form the phrases in these sentences:

1. He owns the house on the corner.
2. They have passed over the hill.
3. The child has just learned to walk.
4. He hoped to win the prize.
5. Having finished the work, they left.
6. We found the child playing in the brook.
7. It is impossible to please every one.
8. The decision of the judge was just.
9. We found the man surrounded by his friends.

7. As to use, phrases are classed as *Substantive, Adjective, Adverb*, and *Verb Phrases*.

8. Classify as to form and use the phrases in these sentences:

1. The road through the valley is rough.
2. To err is human, to forgive is divine.
3. The city of Atlanta is the capital of Georgia.
4. The boy studying so intently is deaf.
5. He likes to study.
6. He came to learn.
7. They left at noon.
8. All have a right to attend school.
9. John should have prepared his lesson.
10. Now and then we meet such a man.

In the ninth sentence, *should have prepared* is a verb phrase.

In the tenth sentence, *now and then* is a group of words doing the work of an adverb. The expression *now and then* means *occasionally*. It is convenient to parse such a group of words as an adverb phrase. Other phrases of this kind are: one by one, hand in hand, ever and anon, from above, from under, etc.

9. Classify as to use, the phrases found in the sentences given under 6.

LXXV. A REVIEW

1. Write two sentences containing verbs in the active voice. Write the sentences again, putting the verbs in the passive voice.

2. Write sentences containing verbs in,

- a. Indicative, passive, past, third, singular.
- b. Subjunctive, active, present, first, singular.
- c. Imperative, passive, second, plural.
- d. Indicative, past perfect, first, plural.

- e.* Indicative, future perfect, first, plural.
- f.* Infinitive, present, passive.
- g.* Infinitive, present perfect, active.
- h.* Indicative, passive, past, second, plural.
- i.* Subjunctive, passive, present, third, singular.
- j.* Imperative, passive, present, second, plural.
- k.* Regular, active, indicative, past, first, singular.
- l.* Irregular, passive, indicative, past perfect, first, plural.
- m.* Irregular, active, indicative, past, first, singular.
- n.* Regular, active, subjunctive, present, third, singular.
- o.* Regular, active, subjunctive, present perfect, third, singular.

LXXXVI. A REVIEW (CONTINUED)

Write a sentence containing

- a.* A prepositional adverb phrase.
- b.* A prepositional adjective phrase.
- c.* An infinitive substantive phrase.
- d.* An infinitive adjective phrase.
- e.* An infinitive adverb phrase.
- f.* A participial adjective phrase.
- g.* A clause expressing doubt.
- h.* A clause expressing condition.
- i.* A clause expressing concession.
- j.* A clause implying denial.

Tell the mode of the verb in each of the clauses you have written.

LXXVII. USES OF *SHALL* AND *WILL*

1. Notice the difference in meaning between these two sentences:

1. I will be drowned; no one shall help me.

2. I shall be drowned; no one will help me.

The first means this: I have made up my mind to be drowned, or I intend to be drowned; I wish no one to help me, or I have decided to let no one help me.

The second means this: I see that it is my fate to be drowned; no one is inclined or able to help me. This is of course the meaning intended unless the speaker meant to commit suicide.

2. In the *first person*, *will* expresses intention, promise, or resolution, while *shall* merely foretells, or expresses simple futurity.

3. In the *second* or *third person*, *will* expresses simple futurity, while *shall* conveys a command, a promise, or a threat.

4. Explain how the two rules given under 2 and 3 are illustrated in these sentences:

1. I shall be glad to see you.

2. If you call at noon, you will find him here.

3. I will speak; he shall not interfere.

4. I think he will come to-morrow.

5. Thou shalt not steal.

EXAMPLE: In the first sentence, *I shall be glad* simply foretells a state of feeling that will exist without any effort or determination. To say, *I will be glad to see you*, would mean that it is my will or desire to be glad, and that would not be very polite.

5. Write sentences to illustrate the use of *shall* and *will* in each of the three persons. Explain to your teacher why you use *shall* or *will* in each case.

LXXVIII. *SHALL* AND *WILL* IN QUESTIONS

1. Special attention should be given to the use of *shall* and *will* in questions.

2. Note difference in meaning in these:

1. Will I bring you a book?

2. Shall I bring you a book?

The first means this: Is it my wish or intention to bring you a book? I alone can answer that question, and hence it is incorrect to ask it. The second means this: Do you wish me to bring you a book, or will you permit me to bring you a book? That is evidently the meaning intended.

3. Note difference in meaning in these:

1. Shall you dine with us to-morrow?

2. Will you dine with us to-morrow?

The first means about this: Can you now foretell that circumstances will permit you to dine with us to-morrow? No one can answer such a question. The second means this: Is it your wish or intention, or will it be consistent with your pleasure, to dine with us to-morrow? Evidently this is what is intended.

The uses of *would* as a variation of *will*, and *should* as a variation of *shall*, are determined by the principles given for the uses of *will* and *shall*.

4. Explain the significance of the use of *will* or *shall*, and of *would* or *should* in the following sentences:

1. If I should ask him, he would decline.

2. I shall see you to-morrow.

3. I am sure you will help me.

4. I fear I shall not find my book.

5. He will pay me.
6. He shall pay me.
7. Shall I return the books to you?
8. I can not go now, but I shall be able to go soon.
9. The pupils are in the hall; shall they enter?
10. You will be pleased with the book.
11. He shall not do it; we will not allow it.
12. I should not think she would do such a thing.
13. He would pay his debts if he should get the money.
14. He was afraid that he should be hurt.

LXXIX. VERBS INCORRECTLY USED

1. The words *hope* and *expect* always look to the future. I may say, I expect he will go; but it is incorrect to say, I expect he went. I may say: I suppose he went; or, I think he went; or, I believe he went.

Expect should not be used in the sense of *suppose*, *think*, or *believe*.

2. I may say: I expected to go; or, I hoped to go; or, I wished to go. It is incorrect to say: I hoped to have gone; or, I expected to have gone; or, I wished to have gone.

It is incorrect to use the perfect infinitive after any tense of *hope*, *expect*, or *wish*.

3. It is also incorrect to say: I expect the mail has arrived; or, I expect he is at home. We can *expect* only what is to happen in the future.

4. People in the northern part of the United States use the word *guess* incorrectly in such sentences as this: I guess he has come. People in the Middle, Western, and Southern States use

the word *reckon* in the same sense. Both have been called "gross vulgarisms" by the highest authorities. They are at least provincialisms that should be avoided.

5. The word *get* is often misused. It means in general *to obtain by effort*. One *gets rich* if he acquires wealth by his own efforts; one may go out in the rain purposely and *get wet*; one may by proper food and exercise *get strong*, etc. But it is not correct to say that one *gets crazy*, or *gets killed* (except in suicide), or *gets caught* (unwillingly), etc.

It is also incorrect to use *got* after *have* to denote possession; as, I have got no money, I have got a small foot, I have got a pretty nose, I have got too much paper, etc. *Got* should not be used in such cases.

6. *Learn* means to *acquire* knowledge, while *teach* means to *impart*. The teacher teaches, and the pupils learn; but it is not correct to say, The teacher learns us much.

7. Write sentences illustrating the correct uses of each verb mentioned in this lesson.

LXXX. ADVERBS—CLASSES

DEFINITION:

An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

1. As to *use*, adverbs are divided into three classes: *Simple Adverbs*, *Interrogative Adverbs*, and *Conjunctive Adverbs*.

2. A *Simple Adverb* merely modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb; as, The horse ran *swiftly*.

3. An *Interrogative Adverb* is an adverb used to ask a question; as, *How* old are you?

4. A *Conjunctive Adverb* is an adverb that connects two clauses

and modifies a word in each; as, I shall see him *when* he comes. This sentence may be put in this form: I shall see him *at the time at which* he comes.

It should be observed (1) that *two phrases* take the place of *when*; (2) that the phrase *at the time* modifies the verb *shall see*, and the phrase *at which* modifies the verb *comes*. This clearly shows the function of *when* in the original sentence.

Make like changes in these sentences:

1. I found the book *where* he left it.
2. He will follow *as* you lead.
3. The grasshopper sang *while* the ant toiled.

Write these sentences substituting two phrases for each adverb.

Explain what each phrase modifies.

5. These words are often used as conjunctive adverbs: *when*, *while*, *as*, *where*, *wherever*, *whenever*, *whenever*, etc. It should be observed, however, that these words are not always conjunctive adverbs. In this sentence,

I know where the book was found,

the word *where* is a simple adverb, modifying the verb *was found*.¹ The subordinate clause, *where the book was found*, is the object of the verb *know*. The word *where* does not modify the verb *know*. This is the test:

If one of these adverbs is equivalent to two phrases, it is a conjunctive adverb; if it is not equivalent to two phrases, it is not a conjunctive adverb. Apply this test in these sentences:

1. We shall start when (at the time at which) they arrive.
2. Tell me when (at what time) they will come.

¹ Some call *where* an *interrogative adverb* when used, as here, in an indirect question.

3. He lives where (at the place in which) you saw him.
4. I do not know where (in what place) he lives.
6. As to *meaning*, adverbs are divided into these classes :
 - (1) *Adverbs of place*; as, *here, there, yonder*.
 - (2) *Adverbs of time*; as, *now, then, to-day, again*, etc.
 - (3) *Adverbs of manner*; as, *well, badly, unjustly*, etc.
 - (4) *Adverbs of degree*; as, *too, very, much, little, no, more, less, least*, and *the* when used before an adjective or an adverb in the comparative degree.

EXAMPLES: 1. *The deeper the well, the cooler the water.*

2. *The sooner you go the better.*

- (5) *Adverbs of affirmation*; as, *yes, yea, aye*.
- (6) *Adverbs of negation*; as, *no, not, nay*.
- (7) *Adverbs of number*; as, *once, twice, thrice; first, secondly, thirdly*.
- (8) *Adverbs of cause*; as, *why, wherefore, whence*.

NOTE: Participles and infinitives may be modified by adverbs.

7. Classify as to use and meaning the adverbs in these sentences:

1. He works little and plays much.
2. She still tries hard to learn fast.
3. Do not be so noisy.
4. Why did you ask twice?
5. Jackson, seriously wounded, still led his troops.
6. They behaved tolerably well.
7. How slowly the time passed!
8. Turning suddenly, he confronted his foe.
9. The ant feasts while the grasshopper starves.

10. The bee finds honey where the spider finds poison.
11. I shall first try to do my own part well.
12. Speak not in anger to any one.
13. He is more zealous than discreet.
14. Again and again we have seen this result.
15. Who goes there?
16. The book is where you laid it.
17. He asked where the book was laid.
18. I saw how a pin is made.
19. I do not know why he was sent.
20. He sings as he was taught to sing.

8. Some adverbs admit of comparison. They usually form the comparative by prefixing *more* or *less* to the positive, and the superlative by prefixing *most* or *least* to the positive; as,

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
earnestly	more earnestly	most earnestly
seriously	less seriously	least seriously

9. Use in sentences of your own construction the comparative and superlative degrees of these adverbs: curiously, eagerly, regally, loyally, joyously, humorously, disastrously, economically, prosperously, studiously.

LXXXI. PARSING ADVERBS

To parse an adverb, state,

1. That it is an adverb, giving the reason (telling what it modifies).
2. Classes to which it belongs.

3. Its degree of comparison, if it can be compared.

EXAMPLE 1. She was most gaudily dressed.

Most gaudily modifies the verb *was dressed*, hence it is an adverb. It is a simple adverb of manner.

It is compared thus: Pos., *gaudily*; Comp., *more gaudily*; Sup., *most gaudily*. It is in the superlative degree.

EXAMPLE 2. I know not when he will come.

Not modifies the verb *know*, hence it is an adverb; it is a simple adverb of negation; it is not compared.

When modifies the verb *will come*, hence it is an adverb; it is a simple adverb of time; it is not compared.

EXAMPLE 3. Stay while he stays.

While is equivalent to two phrases, *for the time in which*, one modifying the verb *stay* and the other modifying the verb *stays*, hence it is a conjunctive adverb; or, *while* connects two clauses and modifies a verb in each, hence it is a conjunctive adverb.

Parse the adverbs contained in the sentences under 7 in Lesson LXXX.

LXXXII. PREPOSITIONS

1. A *preposition* is a word used with a substantive and forming with it an adjective phrase or an adverb phrase. The *substantive* is called the object of the preposition. The preposition is said to show the relation between its object and the word modified by the phrase.

2. The object of a preposition may be a noun, a pronoun, an adjective used as a noun, a phrase, or a clause.

3. For convenience, the word modified by the prepositional phrase is sometimes called the *antecedent* of the phrase.

4. The object of a preposition is in the objective case.

5. Some prepositions are made up of two or more words; as, *according to*, *on account of*, *out of*, *as to*, *as for*, etc. These may be called *phrase-prepositions*.

6. The present participle forms of a few verbs are sometimes used as prepositions; as, *regarding*, *concerning*, *respecting*, etc.

7. Sometimes a preposition, used in connection with an intransitive verb, gives the verb a transitive use; as, *swear to*, *laugh at*, *undergo*, etc. These expressions may be correctly used in the passive voice; as, *was laughed at*, *was sworn to*, etc.

8. Point out the prepositions, the objects, the antecedents, and the prepositional phrases in these sentences:

1. I saw two birds on a limb.

2. I received this impression from what he said.

The object of *from* is the clause, *what he said*, and *what* is the object of *said*. What is the antecedent? The phrase?

3. None knew him but to love him.

The object of *but* is *to love him*.

4. He won my admiration by doing his duty.

5. This was done for your good.

6. According to his opinion, this answer is wrong.

7. I have my opinion as to that report.

8. He was a soldier during the war.

9. He came from across the sea.

The object of *from* is *across the sea*, the object of *across* is *the sea*.

10. He brought me a knife instead of a pencil.

In this sentence, *instead of* is a phrase-preposition.

11. Behind the wall stood a line of soldiers.

12. He came out of the house.

13. There is no use in talking about it.

14. A truthful boy is worthy of confidence.

15. We were talking about who deserves the prize.

9. Parsing a preposition consists in naming the preposition, its object, the prepositional phrase, and the antecedent.

LXXXIII. CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS

1. A *Conjunction* is a word used to connect words, phrases, and clauses.

2. Conjunctions are divided into two classes: *Coördinate Conjunctions*, and *Subordinate Conjunctions*.

3. A *Coördinate Conjunction* is a conjunction used to connect two grammatic structures of equal rank.

EXAMPLE: McKinley was a great and good man.

4. A *Subordinate Conjunction* is a conjunction used to introduce a subordinate clause.

EXAMPLE: I will go if you will stay.

The student should remember that a subordinate clause may also be introduced by a relative pronoun or by a conjunctive adverb.

5. These are some of the coördinate conjunctions in frequent use: *and, but, both, also, either, or, neither, nor, yet, still, then, so*, etc.

6. These are some of the subordinate conjunctions in frequent use: *if, though, that, lest, because, for, since, unless*, etc.

7. Conjunctions used in pairs are called *correlative conjunctions*; as, *both—and, either—or, neither—nor*.

EXAMPLE: *Both* he *and* I were there.

8. A coördinate conjunction may connect:

- (1) Two words; as, John and James are here.
- (2) Two phrases; as, He is old in years and in experience.
- (3) Two members of a compound sentence; as, Do your duty and be patient.

(4) Two subordinate clauses of the same construction; as,
We do not know whence the wind cometh or whither it goeth.

9. Write four sentences, each containing a coördinate conjunction.

10. Write four sentences illustrating the use of correlatives.

NOTE: The first conjunction in each pair of correlatives merely introduces the first of the two structures connected by the second.

11. Write four sentences illustrating the use of subordinate conjunctions.

12. An *Interjection* is a word used to express strong feeling; as, *Oh! Alas!*

13. A few authors, with good reason, prefer to call this part of speech an *exclamation*, but it will probably long be known by its old name, *interjection*.

14. It should be noted that the interjection does not form a part of the sentence. It has no grammatical relation to other words in the sentence.

15. To parse a conjunction,

1. State that it is a conjunction, and tell why. (Give its use.)
2. State class to which it belongs.

16. To parse an interjection,

1. State that it is an interjection, and tell why.
2. State that it has no grammatical construction.

LXXXIV. EXERCISE IN PARSING AND ANALYSIS

1. Parse all the words in these sentences:

1. By accustoming yourself to control your anger you will, by degrees, find it growing meek and manageable.

2. The mocking-bird repeats fully and faithfully the tune taught him by his captor.

3. He runs over the quiverings of the canary-bird and the clear whistling of the Virginia nightingale or redbird, with superior effect and execution.

4. And Ardennes waves above them her green leaves, dewy with Nature's tear-drops.

5. It is a misfortune, not unlike blindness, not to appreciate floral beauty.

6. Knowledge to their eyes her ample page, rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll.

7. Sin and manhood, flee and leave me at my mother's knee.

8. Almost any simple noun may be used as a verb without change of form.

9. Break, break, break, on thy cold gray stones, O sea.

10. Gibbon has left behind one of the most splendid monuments of genius that modern literature can furnish.

11. Wine makes the face of him who drinks it to excess blush for his habits.

12. Mark the majestic simplicity of those laws by which the operations of the universe are conducted.

13. He whose thought dwells in the infinite, regards the world as a mighty corolla from which the thoughts of God exhale.

14. If I were a lawyer, I would not plead a rogue's cause.

2. Analyze the sentences under 1.

PART THREE

I. WORDS AND IDEAS—THOUGHTS AND PROPOSITIONS

1. When you see or hear the word *horse*, you think of a certain kind of animal. You can shut your eyes and form in your mind a picture of a horse. Try it. See now if you can form a mental picture of a fish; of an orange; of an engine.

DEFINITION:

A mental picture of an object is called an Idea.

2. The word *horse* calls to mind one mental picture or idea; the word *fish* another. So it is with other words.

DEFINITION:

A Word is a sign of an idea.

We use words to express ideas.

3. I see an apple and say, "The apple is red." Why do I say that? Because I discover an *agreement* between the *color of the apple* and my *idea of red*.

I taste the apple and at once say, "The apple is not sweet." This shows that I have detected the *disagreement* between the *flavor of the apple* and my *idea of sweetness*.

In each of these cases I have *discerned the relation of agreement or disagreement between two ideas*.

DEFINITIONS:

Discerning relation is thinking.

The result of thinking is a Thought, or a Judgment.

"The apple is red," expresses a simple judgment, a single thought, the *result* of an act of thinking. The four words themselves, "The apple is red," form a *proposition*.

A subject and its predicate taken together form a *proposition*.

DEFINITION:

A Proposition is the verbal expression of a simple judgment, or single thought.

4. What is an idea? A word? Thinking? A thought? A proposition?

5. Explain how the definitions given in this lesson are illustrated in each of these sentences:

1. The grass is green.
2. The flowers are fragrant.
3. Washington was a patriot.
4. This lesson is interesting.

II. THE SENTENCE—SENTENCES CLASSIFIED AS TO FORM

DEFINITION:

A Sentence is an organization of words expressing a thought.

1. A sentence may contain a single proposition; as,

Man is mortal.

DEFINITION:

A Simple Sentence is a sentence containing but one proposition.

2. A sentence may contain two or more independent propositions; as,

Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence and Adams secured its adoption.

DEFINITION:

A Compound Sentence is a sentence containing two or more independent propositions.

NOTE: The propositions that constitute a compound sentence are called *members*.

3. A sentence may contain an independent proposition and one or more dependent propositions; as,

He who would search for pearls must dive below.

DEFINITION:

A Complex Sentence is a sentence consisting of an independent proposition and one or more dependent propositions.

NOTE 1: The propositions that compose a complex sentence are called *clauses*.

NOTE 2: The independent proposition in a complex sentence is called the *principal clause*, and each of the dependent propositions is called a *subordinate clause*.

DEFINITION:

A Subordinate Clause is a clause that fills the office of an adjective, an adverb, or a substantive.

NOTE: In a sentence containing a substantive clause, the entire sentence sometimes constitutes the principal clause.

4. Point out which of the definitions and notes given in this lesson are illustrated in each of these sentences:

1. One thorn of experience is worth a whole wilderness of warning.

2. He is greatest who confers the most benefits.

3. Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.

4. Wealth may seek us, but wisdom must be sought.

5. All healthy people like their dinners, but their dinner is not the main object of their lives.
6. Attention is the stuff that memory is made of.
7. Washington retreated from Long Island because his army was outnumbered.
8. Grammarians tell us that grammar is the science of the sentence.
5. Write sentences illustrating the definitions and notes given in this lesson.

III. SENTENCES CLASSIFIED AS TO MEANING

1. A sentence may be used to make an affirmative or negative statement; as,

1. Blücher arrived on the field of Waterloo just as Wellington was meeting the last onslaught of Napoleon.

2. Grouchy did not reach Waterloo in time to assist Napoleon.

DEFINITION:

A Declarative Sentence is a sentence that makes an affirmative or a negative statement.

2. A sentence may be used to ask a question; as,

Why was Napoleon defeated by Wellington at Waterloo?

DEFINITION:

An Interrogative Sentence is a sentence used in asking a question.

3. A sentence may be used to make a request, to express an entreaty, to utter a prayer, to give a command; as,

1. Lend me your ears.
2. Suffer not yourselves to be betrayed with a kiss.
3. Speak as you think, be what you are, pay your debts of all kinds.
4. Let the fruit be brought and the dessert be served.

DEFINITION :

An Imperative Sentence is a sentence used to express an order, a request, a command, an entreaty, or a prayer.

4. Besides making a statement, asking a question, or conveying a command, a sentence may express sudden or strong feeling; as,

1. Alas! the silence that was then settling on that aged ear was an everlasting silence!
2. Who could imagine the whirlwind of passion that was going on within me as I reclined there!
3. Sit down, all of you, and listen to me!

DEFINITION :

An Exclamatory Sentence is a sentence that makes a statement, asks a question, or conveys a command, and at the same time expresses strong feeling.

5. Show how the definitions given in this lesson are illustrated in these sentences:

1. Fight on, thou brave, true heart, through dark fortune or through bright!
2. The ground of a man's joy is often hard to hit.
3. To be good is to be great.
4. He grieved to give up his dog and gun; he dreaded to meet his wife; but he could not starve among the mountains.

5. Whoever does a good deed is instantly ennobled.
 6. Break, break, break, on thy cold gray stones, O Sea!
 7. Which of you by taking thought can add one cubit unto his stature?
6. Write sentences to illustrate the definitions given in this lesson.
7. Classify as to form the sentences given under 5.

IV. THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE—KINDS

DEFINITION:

An Adjective Clause is a clause that does the work of an adjective.

1. The definition just given furnishes an example of an adjective clause. Point it out.

2. Notice the difference between the adjective clauses in these sentences:

1. Water *which is stagnant* is unwholesome to drink.

2. Water, *which is composed of oxygen and hydrogen*, is essential to life.

Note (1) that the adjective clause may be omitted from the second, but not from the first, without destroying the meaning.

Note (2) that *and it* may be substituted for *which* in the second, but not in the first. Try it, reading the clause as a parenthetical expression.

Note (3) that in the first sentence the adjective clause closely modifies or restricts the meaning of the word *water* as there used, while in the second sentence the adjective clause merely mentions an additional fact about *water*.

The adjective clause in the first sentence is called a *restrictive clause*; that in the second, an *unrestrictive clause*.

RULE:

An unrestrictive adjective clause should be cut off by the comma.

3. Point out the adjective clauses in these sentences, tell whether each is unrestrictive or restrictive, and insert commas where they should be used:

1. He who never changed any of his opinions never corrected any of his mistakes.

2. A fierce spirit of rivalry which is a dangerous thing had taken full possession of him.

3. That boy is very kind to the pony that he rides.

4. The spirit which actuated him was a thirst for blood.

5. The climate of England which is an island is very mild.

6. The climate of England which is modified by the Gulf Stream is very mild.

7. The diamond which she wore cost a thousand dollars.

8. The diamond which is pure charcoal is a brilliant gem.

9. I met my friend whom I had not seen for ten years.

10. I met a friend that I had not seen for ten years.

NOTE: Many good grammarians teach that *that* is preferable to *who* or *which* in restrictive clauses; but many good writers and speakers disregard this teaching.

4. Write three sentences containing restrictive clauses; three containing unrestrictive clauses. Observe the rule for the use of the comma.

5. Classify as to form each of the sentences given under 3, and each of the six that you wrote.

V. THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE—CONNECTIVES

1. Each adjective clause requires a subordinating connective.

2. This connective is usually one of the relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, or *that*; as,

1. The only really bitter tears are those *which* are shed in solitude.

2. Islands are the tops of mountains *whose* base is in the bed of the ocean.

3. They have rights *who* dare maintain them.

3. Sometimes *as* takes the place of *who*, *which*, or *that*, after *such*, *little*, *much*, *many*, and *same*, and is then treated as a *relative pronoun*, used as a subordinating connective; as,

1. Tears *such as* angels weep, burst forth.

2. As many *as* came were baptized.

3. These are the same *as* you saw yesterday.

4. As much was lost *as* was gained.

4. *But*, when equivalent to *that*—*not*, *who*—*not*, or *which*—*not*, may be considered a *negative relative pronoun*, and as such may be used as a subordinating connective in an adjective clause; as,

There is no fireside *but* has one vacant chair.

The same thought may be expressed thus: There is no fireside *that* has *not* one vacant chair.

5. *When*, *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *why*, etc., are sometimes used as subordinating connectives in adjective clauses; as,

He had reached the period of life *when* a man finds more pleasure in the past than in the present.

Note (1) that the subordinate clause here modifies the noun *period*, and is therefore an adjective clause; (2) that *when* is

equivalent to the phrase *in which* or *at which*; (3) that *when* modifies the verb *finds* and is therefore an *adverb*, not a relative pronoun.

6. Point out the subordinating connectives in the sentences given under 2, 3, and 5; classify the sentences as to form; state in each case the office of the subordinate clause, and the function of the connective.

7. Apply the directions given under 6 to these sentences:

1. There is nothing born but has to die.

2. Our works are the mirrors wherein the spirit first sees its natural lineaments.

3. Chaucer has left us such a picture of contemporary life as no other man ever painted.

4. He paid as much money in taxes as was required by law.

5. He gave as little time to military duty as was acceptable.

6. He brought such flowers as his garden bore.

VI. THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE (CONTINUED)

1. Sometimes the antecedent of a relative pronoun is omitted; as,

Who steals my purse steals trash.

Evidently some such antecedent as *he* is to be supplied.

2. Sometimes the relative pronoun is omitted; as,

The man we met in the garden showed us the flowers.

Supply *that* after *man*.

3. In an adjective clause introduced by *as*, the verb is often omitted; as,

Cotton Mather exhibited the same traits of character as his father (exhibited).

4. *Whom* or *which*, used as the object of a preposition, should usually follow the preposition; as,

1. He is the man *to whom* I spoke.

2. This is the house *in which* we live.

5. *That*, used as the object of a preposition, should precede the preposition; as,

This is the child *that* I spoke *to*.

6. *That*, as the object of a preposition or a verb, is often omitted; as,

1. He was the first man we saw.

2. She was the last woman we spoke *to*.

In analysis, supply *that* after *man* and after *woman*.

7. The word modified by the adjective clause is the *antecedent* of the relative pronoun found in the adjective clause. This word may be a noun or other substantive used in any relation to other words in the principal clause.

8. Sometimes the antecedent of a relative pronoun is a phrase or an entire clause; as,

1. *To confess a fault*, which often requires courage, was to him an easy duty.

2. *That he is an honest man*, which is now conceded by all, was once questioned by his enemies.

9. In the following sentences, (1) supply omitted words; (2) point out the subordinate clauses, and state what each modifies; (3) name the connectives, and state the use of each:

1. Many consider Jefferson the greatest statesman America has yet produced.

2. The world is his who has money to go over it.
3. The boy closed the shutters, which darkened the room.
4. The house you admire so much belongs to the man we see yonder.
5. Here are the things you sent for.
6. He gave all he had.
7. Whom the Lord loveth He chasteneth.
8. Words, which are the signs of ideas, are divided into eight classes.

VII. THE ADVERB CLAUSE: CLASSES

1. In regard to *meaning*, adverbs are classed as adverbs of time, adverbs of place, adverbs of manner, etc. See Lesson LXXX, Part Two.

We may often substitute a phrase or a clause for an adverb. Let us study the uses of the clause as an adverb.

DEFINITION:

An Adverb Clause is a clause used to do the work of an adverb.

2. Each adverb clause requires the use of a subordinating connective. This connective may be either a conjunction or a conjunctive adverb.

3. An adverb clause may be used to express *time*; as,

When a prisoner first leaves his cell, he can not bear the light of day.

Such a clause is called a *time* (or *temporal*) *clause*.

Note (1) that the subordinating connective here is *When*; (2) that *When* introduces the time clause and also modifies the verb

leaves in the subordinate clause, and the verb *bear* (or *can bear*) in the principal clause. This is the office of a *conjunctive adverb*. See Lesson LXXX, Part Two.

4. An adverb clause may be used to express *place*; as,

He died *where he was born*.

NOTE: Adapt to this sentence the note given under 3.

Such a clause is called a *place* (or *local*) *clause*.

5. An adverb clause may be used to express *manner*; as,

Sing out, children, *as the little thrushes do*.

NOTE: Adapt to this sentence the note under 3.

Such a clause is called a *manner* (or *modal*) *clause*.

6. An adverb clause may be used to express *degree*; as,

They were as timid and cowardly as they were rebellious.

NOTE: Adapt to this sentence the note given under 3.

Such a clause is called a *degree clause*.

7. An adverb clause may be used to express *cause*; as,

The ground is wet *because it rained last night*.

Such a clause is called a *cause clause*, and answers the question, *Why?*

8. An adverb clause may be used to express *reason* or *evidence*; as,

It rained last night, *because the ground is wet*.

Such a clause is called a *reason clause*, and answers the question, *How do you know?* or, *Why do you say so?*

REMARK: The cause clause and the reason clause should be carefully distinguished.

9. An adverb clause may be used to express *purpose*; as,

The door of Scrooge's counting-house was open *that he might keep his eyes upon his clerk*.

Such a clause is called a *purpose clause*, and answers the question, *For what purpose?*

10. An adverb clause may be used to express *result*; as,

I find myself so much like other people *that I often wonder at the coincidence*.

Such a clause is called a *result clause*, and answers the question, *What was or is the result?*

11. An adverb clause may be used to express the *condition* on which the fact stated in the principal clause is true; as,

If we know our lessons, we enjoy reciting them.

Such a clause is called a *condition clause*.

12. An *adverb clause* may state or concede that, in spite of which, the fact stated in the principal clause is true; as,

If they were unacquainted with the works of philosophers and poets, they were deeply read in the oracles of God.

Such a clause is called a *concessive clause*.

RULE:

The adverb clause is cut off by the comma unless it closely follows and also closely restricts the word it modifies.

13. Write sentences illustrating the classes of adverb clauses mentioned in this lesson.

VIII. EXERCISE IN CLASSIFYING ADVERB CLAUSES

Point out and classify the adverb clauses in these sentences, state what each modifies, name and classify the connective in

each case, and explain why each clause is or is not cut off by the comma:

1. When prejudice enters, reason departs.

2. Pope skimmed the cream of good sense and expression wherever he could find it.

3. Language was given us that we might say pleasant things to each other.

4. He is older than he is wise.

REMARK: This sentence may be read thus: He is old beyond the degree in which he is wise. This shows (1) that *older* means *old beyond the degree*; (2) that *than* means *in which*; (3) that *which*, in the phrase *in which*, is a connective; (4) hence that *than* is a conjunction (i.e., connective).

5. A man is as great as he is good.

This sentence may be read thus: A man is great in the degree in which he is good.

This shows (1) that the first *as* fills the office of the phrase *in the degree*, which modifies *great*, and is therefore an adverb; (2) that the second *as* fills the office of the phrase *in which*, which modifies *good*, and also *connects* the subordinate clause to the first *as*.

6. He has more money than brains.

Supply *he has* after *than*.

7. He can read better than I.

8. As a man lives so shall he die.

9. The older we grow, the more cautious we become.

This means, We become more cautious *to the extent* in which we grow older. This shows (1) which is the principal, and which the subordinate clause; (2) the office of *the*.

10. As the door turneth upon its hinges, so doth the slothful man upon his bed.

11. We Americans must all be cuckoos, for we build our homes in the nests of other birds.

12. If you ever saw a crow with a king-bird after him, you have an image of a dull speaker and a lively listener.

13. Tobacco and the potato are American products, since Raleigh found them here.

14. If nettles and thistles grow in my cabbage garden, I do not try to persuade them to become cabbages.

IX. EXERCISE IN CLASSIFYING ADVERB CLAUSES

In the following sentences, apply the directions given at the beginning of Lesson VIII:

1. Confidence can not dwell where selfishness is porter at the gate.

2. I am not solitary while I read, though nobody is with me.

3. Whither thou goest, I will go.

4. Although Columbus discovered a New World, he died poor.

5. The long, warm days of summer never return but they bring with them a gloom. (*But = that—not.*)

6. A man can not speak but he judges himself.

7. If you would not be known to do a thing, never do it.

8. Talents are absolutely nothing to a man except he have the faculty of working along with them. (*Except = if—not.*)

9. So far as a man thinks, he is free.

10. Judge not, that ye be not judged.

11. Since the breath contains poisonous carbonic acid, wise people ventilate their sleeping-rooms.

12. Slang is always vulgar, as it is an affected way of talking.

X. EXERCISE TO BE WRITTEN

Write sentences containing all the kinds of adverb clauses mentioned in Lessons VII and VIII. You may either compose these sentences or copy them from books.

XI. THE SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE—USES

DEFINITION :

A Substantive Clause is a clause that does the work of a noun.

1. A substantive clause may be used as the *subject of a verb*; as,

That he is honest is believed by all.

What *is believed by all*? *That he is honest.* What is the subject of *is believed*?

Often when the subject of a sentence is a clause, *it* is used as an *anticipative subject*, or as an introductory word, while the real subject (the clause), is placed last; as,

It is believed by all *that he is honest.*

2. A substantive clause may be used as the *object of a verb*; as,
All believe that he is honest.

What do *all believe*? *That he is honest.* What is the object of *believe*?

3. A substantive clause may be used as the *object of a preposition*; as,

There is some dispute about *who first discovered America.*

What is the object of *about*?

4. A substantive clause may be used to do the *work of a predicate noun*; as,

Tweed's defiant question was, *What are you going to do about it?*

5. A substantive clause may be used as an *appositive modifier*; as,

The fact *that stars are suns* is taught by astronomers.

If the words *The fact* be omitted, then the clause *that stars are suns* becomes the subject of the sentence. Again, the sentence may be used thus: It is taught by astronomers that stars are suns. In this case, the clause may be called the real subject and *it* treated either as an expletive, or as an anticipative subject, or *it* may be called the subject and the clause be treated as in apposition with *it*.

6. Write sentences illustrating the uses of clauses mentioned in this lesson.

RULE:

A substantive clause used as a predicate nominative is usually cut off by the comma.

XII. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES—INTRODUCTORY WORDS

1. Substantive clauses may be introduced by *relative pronouns*; as,

1. I heard *what he said*.

2. I know *who got the book*.

3. *Whoever would wear a crown* must bear a cross.

NOTE 1: Some authors would change *what* to *that which*, *who* to *the one who*, and *whoever* to *any one who*, and thus change these substantive clauses into adjective clauses. This, however, is not necessary.

NOTE 2: In the first sentence given above, the substantive clause, *what he said*, is the object of *heard*; the relative pronoun *what* is the object of *said*.

NOTE 3: Observe that no one of these relative pronouns has an antecedent.

NOTE 4: Some authors call *who*, as used in the second sentence, an interrogative pronoun, saying that it is here used in an *indirect* question. It seems better, however, to treat it as a relative pronoun.

2. Substantive clauses may be introduced by *adverbs*; as,

1. I have learned *where the river rises*.

2. Thou canst not tell *whither it goeth*.

3. *Why he behaves so* is a mystery.

4. Some wise people will judge you by *how you treat your mother*.

3. Substantive clauses may be introduced by words usually treated as conjunctions, such as *that, if, whether*, etc.; as,

1. *That imitation is the sincerest flattery*, is generally acknowledged.

2. I wonder *if he will go*.

3. He is considering *whether he should go or stay*.

NOTE 1: The words *if, that, and whether*, as here used, are not really conjunctions, but merely introductory words.

NOTE 2: The introductory word *that* is often understood; as,

1. It is true that all things have two faces, a light one and a dark; or, it is true all things have, etc.

2. I believe that he is honest; or, I believe he is honest.

NOTE 3: Some writers claim that *if* is incorrectly used for *whether* in such sentences as the second under 3. This use of *if* in the sense of *whether* is sanctioned, however, by good authority. (See *The Century Dictionary*.)

Such examples as these may also be found:

1. She 'll not tell me *if* she love me. TENNYSON.

2. He knows at last *if* Life or Death be best. LOWELL.

4. Substantive clauses may be introduced by *what, which, whatever, whichever*, etc., used as *adjectives*: as,

1. Tell me *which book you prefer*.

2. You may pursue *whichever course you choose*.

5. A substantive clause may be introduced by *but* or *but that* used in the sense of *that not*; as,

"Who knows *but in the end I may turn into a dog?*" said the fox. — FROUDE.

6. Write sentences illustrating the uses of the introductory words mentioned in this lesson. You may either copy or compose these.

XIII. EXERCISE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

Point out the substantive clauses in the following sentences, and tell how each is used; also name the introductory words and classify each:

1. That the same word is used for the Soul of man and for a glass of gin is singular.

NOTE: What "same word" is referred to?

2. The myth concerning Achilles is, that he was invulnerable in every part except the heel.

3. The fact that mold, mildew, and yeast are plants, is wonderful.

4. We are not certain that the future will bring us happiness and prosperity.

NOTE: After *certain* we may supply *of the fact*, and thus make the clause an appositive modifier of the noun *fact*; or we may suppose the preposition *of* to be understood after *certain*, and thus make the clause the object of the preposition.

5. He was desirous that the people should think for themselves.

6. I can say to you what I can not first say to myself.

7. Shall I care about how they criticise the outside of my life? PHILLIPS BROOKS.

8. The worst of a modern stylish mansion is, that it has no place for ghosts. HOLMES.

9. Men are what their mothers made them. EMERSON.

10. The Sandwich Islander is confident that the strength and valor of his slain enemy pass into himself.

11. "Where is Abel, thy brother?" smote the ears of guilty Cain.

12. The school may ask of you, "What do you know?"

13. The world will ask of you, "What can you do?"

14. Shakespeare's metaphor, "Night's candles are burnt out," is one of the finest in literature.

NOTE: What is a *metaphor*?

15. Write it on your heart that every day is the best day.

16. Polonius's advice to his son was, "Beware of entrance into a quarrel."

XIV. CLASSIFYING SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

Classify all the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, treating each clause as instructed under directions previously given for its class:

1. If pride of rank was generated in this fraternity of gentlemen, so also was scorn of lies and baseness. LORD.

2. So high as the tree aspires to grow, so high will it find an atmosphere suited to it. THOREAU.

3. I myself must mix with action lest I wither by despair.

—TENNYSON.

4. There is no poltroon in the world but can bray about what he would have done.—THACKERAY.

5. Calvin, whose life was darkened by disease, had a gloomy element in his theology.—CLARKE.

6. It is by little things that we know ourselves.—HOLMES.

7. Till men have been sometime free, they know not how to use their freedom.—MACAULAY.

8. Where the eyes say one thing and the tongue another, a practiced man relies on the language of the first.—EMERSON.

9. Even when they fail, those who try are entitled to praise.

10. Respect for woman was born in the German forests before the Roman Empire fell.—LORD.

11. Until a man can truly enjoy a draught of clear water bubbling from a mountain-side, his taste is in an unwholesome state.

—F. HARRISON.

12. Is the old Grecian spirit frozen in your veins, that you do crouch and cower like a belabored hound beneath his master's lash?—KELLOGG.

13. Middlingness is always pardonable, so that one does not ask others to take it for superiority.—GEORGE ELIOT.

14. The guns can be fired in any direction, no matter how the ship is lying.

NOTE: *No matter how* = *however*.

15. Whenever the wandering demon of Drunkenness finds a ship adrift he steps on board, takes the helm, and steers straight for the maelstrom.—HOLMES.

16. The men whom men respect, the women whom women approve, are the men and women who bless their species.—PARTON.

XV. A REVIEW

1. What is an idea? A word? Thinking? A thought? A proposition?

2. What is a sentence? A simple sentence? A complex sentence? A clause? A declarative sentence? An interrogative? An imperative? An exclamatory?

3. Write a sentence containing a restrictive adjective clause; an unrestrictive adjective clause.

4. Write three sentences containing adjective clauses introduced by relative pronouns.

5. Write sentences containing adjective clauses introduced by *when, where, whence, whither, why, wherein*.

6. Write a sentence containing an adverb clause (1) of manner; (2) of time; (3) of place; (4) of degree; (5) of cause; (6) of reason or evidence; (7) of purpose; (8) of result; (9) of condition; (10) of concession.

7. Write a sentence containing a substantive clause used (1) as subject; (2) as object of a verb; (3) as object of a preposition; (4) as a predicate nominative; (5) as an appositive modifier.

8. What is the rule for the use of the comma in the adjective clause? In the adverb clause? In the substantive clause?

XVI. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE—MEMBERS
AND CONNECTIVES

1. What is a compound sentence? What are the propositions that compose a compound sentence called?

2. Members are always connected by coördinating conjunctions, expressed or implied.

3. The members of a compound sentence may express a continued line of thought; as,

Hamilton smote the rock of national resources, and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth. — WEBSTER.

For members so related, the typical conjunction is *and*.

Other conjunctions used to connect such members have the force of *and* with some additional meaning. These conjunctions are sometimes called *copulative conjunctions*.

4. The members of a compound sentence may express thoughts in contrast; as,

Every man desires to live long, but no man would be old.

For members so related the typical conjunction is *but*. Sometimes *yet*, *while*, *still*, *nevertheless*, etc., are used instead of *but*. These connectives are sometimes called *adversative conjunctions*.

5. The members of a compound sentence may express thoughts in alternation; as,

Help us now or we shall perish.

For members so related, *or* is the typical conjunction. Such a conjunction is sometimes called an *alternative conjunction*. Frequently *either* is used as the correlative of *or*; as,

Either Hamlet was mad, or he feigned madness admirably.

NOTE: Sometimes *else* or *otherwise* serves as a connective instead of *or*.

6. Sometimes the thought expressed in the second member of a compound sentence stands in the relation of consequence, or conclusion, or inference, to the thought stated at the first member; as,

The people in the streets are carrying umbrellas, therefore it must be raining.

For members so related, the typical connective is *therefore*; but

hence, wherefore, so, etc., are often used instead of *therefore*. These connectives are sometimes called *illative particles*, and the members introduced by them are called *illative propositions*.

NOTE: The copulative conjunction *and* is often found, and may always be supplied, before these illative particles. This fact shows that the two members are of equal rank, and hence that they form a compound sentence.

RULE:

When the members of a compound sentence are short and closely connected, they are separated, if at all, by the comma; when they are but slightly connected, or when they are subdivided by commas, they are separated by the semicolon.

NOTE: Which part of the rule is illustrated in the rule itself?

XVII. EXERCISE IN CLASSIFYING MEMBERS

Explain how the propositions constituting the following sentences are related:

1. I have seen, therefore I believe.
2. Loulein was not at school yesterday, hence she must have been ill.
3. Boys may be capital fellows in their own way; but they are often disagreeable companions to old people.
4. Ready writing makes not good writing, but good writing brings ready writing.
5. Of thy unspoken word thou art master; thy spoken word is master of thee.

What conjunction may be supplied?

6. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.

7. The Tudors were despotic, or history belies them.

8. The way is beset with enemies; besides, we have no provisions.

9. He was determined, yet he was quiet.

10. Bolts and bars are not the best of our institutions, nor is shrewdness in trade a mark of wisdom.—EMERSON.

Nor is equivalent to *and*—*not*.

11. In the city we study those around us, but in the country we learn to know ourselves.—LONGFELLOW.

12. There is much wealth in England, yet there are many poor people there.

13. No books are complete; still they furnish great assistance.

14. You must be temperate in youth, else you will suffer in old age.

15. Can Honor's¹ voice provoke the silent dust, or Flattery soothe the dull cold ear of Death?

16. The ship leaped, as it were, from billow to billow.

NOTE: A proposition used parenthetically is grammatically independent.

XVIII. COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES. EXERCISE

1. What is a compound sentence? A complex sentence?

2. The members of a compound sentence are of equal rank; the clauses of a complex sentence are of unequal rank.

¹ The name of a thing vividly personified begins with a capital.

3. We may now learn from the following example that a member of a compound sentence may itself be complex:

Glossy hammock-clothes concealed the persons of those who were on deck, and the close bulwarks gave the brigantine the air of a vessel that was equipped for war.

Note (1) that *and* connects the two members of this compound sentence; (2) that each member is complex inasmuch as it contains an adjective clause. Point out these clauses.

4. We may now learn from the following examples that a subordinate clause in a complex sentence may itself be compound or complex:

1. We know not whence it cometh or whither it goeth.

Note (1) that two substantive clauses are used as the object of *know*. What two clauses?

Note (2) that these two clauses are connected by the coordinate conjunction *or*. Hence they form a *compound* element.

2. I believe that the man who was arrested is innocent.

Note (1) that the object of *believe* is the substantive clause, *that the man who was arrested is innocent*.

Note (2) that this substantive clause contains within itself an adjective clause, *who was arrested*, used to modify the noun *man*. Hence this substantive clause is itself complex.

5. Any structure composed of two or more elements of equal rank is compound, while a structure composed of two or more elements of unequal rank is complex. Apply this to compound and complex sentences.

6. Tell whether each of the following sentences is simple, compound, or complex; whether the members of each compound sentence are simple or complex; and whether the subordinate clauses of each complex sentence are simple, compound, or complex:

1. Commit a crime, and the earth is made of glass.

—EMERSON.

2. But hospitality must be for service and not for show, or it pulls down the host.—EMERSON.

But in such cases *connects* the sentence *logically* with what precedes; *grammatically*, it merely *introduces* this sentence, and is not really a conjunction.

3. He teaches who gives, and he learns who receives.

4. Times of heroism are generally times of terror, but the day never shines in which this element may not work.

5. We should measure our esteem of each other by what each is, not by what each has.

6. When you have chosen your part, abide by it, and do not weakly try to reconcile yourself with the world.

Note that the principal clause in this sentence is compound.

7. Observe your enemies, for they first find out your faults.

—ANTISTHENES.

8. Envy always implies conscious inferiority wherever it is found.—PLINY.

9. The less heart a man puts into a task the more labor it requires.—AMIEL.

10. Evasion is unworthy of us and is always the intimate of equivocation.—BALZAC.

11. The same people who can deny others everything are famous for refusing themselves nothing.—LEIGH HUNT.

12. If there is any person to whom you feel dislike, that is the person of whom you ought never to speak.—R. CECIL.

13. Never marry but for love; but see that thou lovest what is lovely.

14. To grow old is natural; being natural, it is beautiful;

and if we grumble at it, we miss the lesson and lose all the beauty.

15. Men, dying, make their wills, but wives
Escape a task so sad;
Why should they make what all their lives
The gentle dames have had?

XIX. COMPLEX SENTENCES ABRIDGED

1. Note how the following complex sentence is abridged:

1. I am thy father's spirit, which was doomed for a certain term to walk the night.

2. I am thy father's spirit, doomed for a certain term to walk the night.

Note (1) that the subject of the *adjective clause* is omitted, and (2) that the verb in the adjective clause is changed to a participle used as an adjective modifier. What does it modify?

2. Note how the following complex sentence is abridged:

1. I have many things which I wish to tell you.

2. I have many things to tell you.

Note that in the adjective clause the subject, the verb, and the direct object of the infinitive *to tell* are omitted.

3. Note how the following complex sentence is abridged:

1. Truth, though she may be crushed to earth, shall rise again.

2. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.

Note (1) that the subject of the *adverb clause* is omitted; and (2) that the verb is changed to a participle used as an *adjective* modifying the noun *truth*; and (3) that the connective is omitted.

4. Note how this complex sentence is abridged:

1. When night came on, we gave up the chase.

2. Night coming on, we gave up the chase.

Note (1) that the connective in the adverb clause is omitted; and (2) that the verb is changed into a participle,—forming an absolute participial phrase.

5. Note how this complex sentence is abridged:

1. He drilled his own forces thoroughly before he engaged the enemy in battle.

2. He drilled his own forces thoroughly before engaging the enemy in battle.

Note (1) that the subject of the adverb clause is omitted; (2) that the verb is changed to a participle used as the object of a preposition.

6. Note how this complex sentence is abridged:

1. Good people are pained when they hear God's name used irreverently.

2. Good people are pained to hear God's name used irreverently.

Note (1) that the connective and the subject of the adverb clause are omitted; (2) that the finite verb *hear* is changed to the infinitive *to hear*.

7. Note how this complex sentence is abridged:

1. Criminals are punished that society may be safe.

2. Criminals are punished for the safety of society.

Note that the adverb clause is changed into a prepositional phrase.

8. Note how the complex members of the following compound sentence are abridged:

1. He is older than I am, but I am as tall as he is.
2. He is older than I, but I am as tall as he.

REMARK: Clauses introduced by *as* and *than* are usually thus abridged. In analyzing such sentences, the omitted words should be supplied.

9. Note how the following complex sentence is abridged:

1. All admit that Webster was a great orator.
2. All admit Webster's being a great orator.

Note (1) that the verb in the noun clause is changed to a participle; and (2) that the subject is changed to a possessive modifier.

10. Note how this complex sentence is abridged:

1. I believe that he is an honest man.
2. I believe him to be an honest man.

Note (1) that the finite verb *is* in the noun clause, is changed to the infinitive *to be*; and (2) that the subject is consequently changed from the nominative to the objective case.

11. Note how this complex sentence is abridged:

1. That he should do his duty was his chief concern.
2. To do his duty was his chief concern.

Note that the substantive clause is changed to an infinitive phrase.

12. We have illustrated a few of the many ways in which complex sentences may be abridged. The pupil should try to discover for himself the methods of abridgment illustrated in the sentences given in the next lesson.

XX. ABRIDGMENT OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

Copy the following sentences in an abridged form, and then explain orally what change is made in each case:

1. We are all anxious that we appear to advantage.
2. How long do you think that Luzon is?
3. That the caterpillar changes to a butterfly is a curious fact. (See 9, Lesson XIX.)
4. Error must yield, however strongly it may be defended.
5. He is foolish, because he leaves school so early in life.
6. When oxygen and carbon unite in the minute blood-vessels, heat is produced.
7. Some people who have lived abroad undervalue the advantages of their native land.
8. He had an axe that he wished to grind.
9. I concede that he was successful. (See 3.)
10. A man who has no friends is to be pitied.

Change the adjective clause (1) into a participial phrase, and (2) into a prepositional phrase.

11. A man who has no character is poor indeed.
12. This is a prose era rather than it is a poetic era.
13. A man who has health, peace, and a competence, has everything that is necessary in order that he may live happily.
14. After they had made many vain efforts, they at last succeeded.
15. Not to appreciate floral beauty is a misfortune, which is not unlike blindness.
16. But Knowledge to their eyes her ample page, rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll.

XXI. EXERCISE IN ABRIDGING COMPLEX SENTENCES

1. Copy or compose four sentences containing adjective clauses that may be abridged, then write these sentences in abridged form.

2. Copy or compose four sentences containing substantive clauses that may be abridged, and then write these sentences in abridged form.

3. Copy or compose four sentences containing adverb clauses that may be abridged, and then write these sentences in abridged form.

XXII. COMPOUND SENTENCES ABRIDGED

1. From the following examples you may learn how a compound sentence is abridged:

1. Webster was an orator, Calhoun was an orator, and Clay was an orator.

2. Webster, Calhoun, and Clay were orators.

Note (1) that the three members of the compound sentence have the same predicate but different subjects; (2) that in the abridged form the common predicate is expressed but once, while the different subjects are all used; and (3) that the result is a simple sentence with a compound subject.

2. Abridge the following compound sentences as in 1, and explain each case as in notes under 1:

1. Venus is a planet, Uranus is a planet, and Jupiter is a planet.

2. Washington was a soldier, Washington was a statesman, and Washington was a patriot.

3. Our laws protect our rights, our laws protect our property, and our laws protect our lives.

4. Kingdoms rise, kingdoms flourish, and kingdoms fall.

5. He owned land, he owned cattle, and he owned horses.

6. He is industrious, he is ambitious, and he is honorable.

7. He answered promptly, he answered clearly, and he answered satisfactorily.

8. Settlers came from France, and settlers came from Spain.

3. Expand the following abridged sentences into their unabridged form:

1. Time and tide wait for no man.

2. You must be for us or against us.

3. Sir Philip Sidney lived and died the darling of the court, and the gentleman and idol of the time.

4. He was himself the beginning, the middle, and the end of all his poetry.

5. A soldier, wounded by a bullet, and suffering great pain, came into the camp.

4. Write seven compound sentences and change them into simple sentences containing compound elements, as follows: (1) subject; (2) predicate; (3) predicate nominative; (4) adjective modifier; (5) adverb modifier; (6) prepositional phrase; (7) participial phrase.

XXIII. CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

Read again Lessons XXVI and XXVII, Part Two.

1. How many *case forms* have nouns? What are they? Give examples.

2. How many *case forms* have pronouns? What are they? Give examples.

3. In what case is the subject of a finite verb? Of an infinitive? Give examples.

4. In what case is a noun or a pronoun, used as a possessive modifier? Give examples.

5. In what case is a noun or a pronoun, used as the object of a transitive verb in the active voice? Of a participle? Of an infinitive? Of a preposition? Give examples.

6. In what case is a noun or a pronoun, used as an appositive modifier? Give examples.

7. The subject of a sentence is a noun, or some structure used as a noun; that is, it is always a substantive. It may be:

(a) A noun; as,

Fog rises from the river.

(b) A pronoun; as,

He came from England.

(c) An adjective used as a noun; as,

The rich should help the poor.

(d) An infinitive; as,

To lie is base.

(e) A clause; as,

That he is honest is believed by all.

RULE:

Any structure used as the subject of a sentence is said to be in the Nominative Case.

The pronoun alone shows this relation *by form*.

8. The possessive case of a noun or a pronoun is the form of it which is used to denote possession; as,

1. *John's* hat was lost.

2. John lost *his* hat.

This form of the noun or pronoun takes its name from the fact that it often denotes the relation of *possession*, or ownership. Yet it is frequently used merely to limit the application of a noun; as,

1. John respects *his* father.

2. They met at the *river's* edge.

This function of the possessive closely resembles that of the adjective.

9. A noun or pronoun in the possessive modifies the meaning of some noun, expressed or understood.

Two cases should be carefully distinguished:

(1) When the modified noun is expressed, the possessive has the *possessive case relation*; as,

John lost *his* hat.

Here *his* modifies the noun *hat* and is in the possessive case relation.

(2) When the modified noun is understood, the possessive may have the *case relation of the omitted noun*; as,

John's hat is still lost, but *mine* has been found.

Here *mine* has the possessive *form*, but it is the subject of *has been found*, a nominative case relation.

Mine, thine, ours, yours, hers, theirs, and often *his* and *its*, though possessive in form, are used in constructions requiring the nominative or objective case.

The possessive form of a noun may also be used as in the following sentence:

My hat has been found, but *John's* is still lost.

Here *John's* is a possessive form used as the subject of *is still lost*, a nominative case relation.

10. In the sentences given under 9, (2), the noun *hat* may be supplied. Instead of *mine* we may say *my hat*; and instead of *John's*, say *John's hat*. Thus, the possessive forms have the relation of possessive modifiers to the noun *hat*. Sometimes, however, it is not easy to supply a noun; as in these:

1. This heart of *mine* will break.

2. He is a friend of *John's*.

It seems better here to regard both *mine* and *John's* as in the objective case relation after the preposition *of*.

11. The possessive form is correctly used in such constructions as this:

I have no doubt about *his writing the letter*.

The object of *about* is *his writing the letter*. *Writing* is a participle, having here the properties of a verb and a noun. In its verbal nature it takes the object *letter*. As a noun it is modified by the possessive *his*. Inasmuch as *his* represents the person who did the *writing*, its function is somewhat like that of a *subject*, which represents the doer or actor in active voice constructions. A *subject*, however, represents that of which something *is asserted* (by a verb). A participle, as *writing*, can not *assert*, and therefore can not have a subject proper. Yet some authors call *his* the *assumed subject* of the participle *writing*, on the ground that a participle *assumes* action, being, etc., instead of *asserting* action, etc.

12. Write sentences illustrating all the principles discussed under 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11.

XXIV. CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF
NOUNS AND PRONOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. An incomplete, intransitive verb requires a subjective complement; as,

1. She became *queen*.
2. The boy looks *sick*.

A subjective complement is sometimes called a predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective; sometimes, an attribute complement, from its expressing an attribute of the subject and completing the predicate. It is here called a subjective complement, from its modifying the subject and completing the predicate.

2. A subjective complement may be:

- (a) A noun; as,
He looks a *king*.
- (b) A pronoun; as,
This is *he*.
- (c) An adjective; as,
The cloth feels *soft*.
- (d) An infinitive; as,
The sun appears *to move*.
- (e) A prepositional phrase; as,
The book is *on the table*.
- (f) A noun clause; as,
This is *what I wanted*.

3. A noun or pronoun used as a subjective complement denotes the same person or thing as the subject and is in the same *case*.

4. Write five sentences, each containing a pronoun used as a subjective complement.

5. A noun used to name the person or thing addressed is in the *nominative case by address*; as,

John, bring me the book.

A noun so used has no grammatical relation to other words in the sentence; hence it is sometimes called the *nominative case independent*. It really has no *case relation*; it has the *name form*.

6. A noun or pronoun used as the base of an absolute participial expression, is said to be in the *nominative case absolute*; as,

1. *He* having gone, I became lonesome.

2. The *sun* having set, it soon grew dark.

These absolute expressions come from the abridgment of subordinate clauses, and *logically* they have some relation to the rest of the sentence, but *grammatically* they are absolute.

7. A noun used pleonastically is said to be in the *nominative case by pleonasm*; as,

Our *souls*, how bravely they go, to reach immortal joys.

Note that the words *souls* and *they* are not both necessary. *Souls* has no grammatical relation to other words in the sentence.

8. A noun used in mere exclamation is said to be in the *nominative case by exclamation*; as,

She, poor *wretch*! for grief can speak no more.

9. Write two sentences to illustrate each of the cases mentioned under 5, 6, 7, and 8.

XXV. CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF
NOUNS AND PRONOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. A noun or pronoun used to modify another noun or pronoun and denoting the same person or thing is *by apposition* in the same case as the noun modified; as,

Webster *the statesman* was a great orator.

A noun or pronoun so used is called an *appositive modifier*, or an *explanatory modifier*.

2. A noun in apposition, unmodified, or modified by *the* only, is not usually set off by the comma; as,

Thomson *the poet* was indolent.

3. An appositive modifier introduced by *or* or *as* is usually set off by the comma; as,

1. Maize, *or Indian corn*, grows here.

2. He, *as chairman*, cast the deciding vote.

NOTE: *Or* and *as*, as here used, are introductory words. In the following sentence, *as* may be parsed as an introductory word, or as an *index of apposition*:

He joined the army *as* captain.

4. An appositive modifier does not necessarily agree with the modified noun in any respect except in case; as,

His *diet, fruits* and *vegetables*, is wholesome.

5. When two nouns in the possessive case are in apposition, the second only is inflected; as,

We have been reading *Napoleon, the great general's*, exploits.

It is usually better, however, so to construct the sentence as to avoid this form of expression; thus,

We have been reading the exploits of *Napoleon*, the great *general*.

In the sentence as first written, the nouns *Napoleon* and *general's* are both in the possessive case, though the latter only has this form.

6. A noun may be in apposition with a sentence, or a sentence with a noun; as,

1. *I decided to treat him justly—a decision* which I have carefully followed.

2. Remember this *adage*: *Fortune favors the brave*.

It is hardly necessary to consider the *case relation* of *decision* as here used. It correctly has the *name form*. Theoretically, it has the same case as the sentence with which it is in apposition, but that can hardly be said to have case. *Adage* is of course in the objective case. Why? The sentence following is an explanatory, or appositive, modifier of *adage*, but may not properly be said to have case.

7. Frequently a *noun clause* is used as an appositive modifier of a noun; as,

Harvey discovered the *fact that the blood circulates*.

8. A noun or pronoun repeated for emphasis is to be treated as an appositive; as,

1. We heard a *cry*, a sharp, shrill *cry*.

2. He, *he* alone, can answer.

9. A compound personal pronoun is often in apposition with a simple personal pronoun; as,

He *himself* did it.

10. A pronoun is sometimes in apposition with a noun; as,

1. Ichabod Crane, *he* of the hooked nose and the shambling gait, was the schoolmaster of Sleepy Hollow.

2. I met your friend, *her* of whom you have so often spoken.

Explain why *he*, rather than *him*, is correct; also why *her*, rather than *she* is correctly used.

11. Write sentences illustrating all the case forms and case relations considered in this lesson.

XXVI. CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. The object of a transitive verb, in the active voice, or of one of its verbals, is in the *objective case*; as,

1. They *saw him*.

2. They came *to see him*.

3. *Having seen him*, they left.

2. The object of a verb or verbal may be:

(a) A noun; as,

Hawks catch *chickens*.

(b) A pronoun; as,

They found *him*.

(c) An infinitive; as,

The girls learned *to sing*.

(d) A participial phrase; as,

Boys enjoy *flying kites*.

(e) An adjective used as a noun; as,

The strong should help *the weak*.

(f) A clause; as,

They know *what you said*.

Each of the foregoing sentences contains a verb followed by an object. Verbals also govern objects; as,

1. *Writing notes* is forbidden.
2. He likes *to catch fish*.

In (1), *notes* is the object of the participle *writing*. *Writing notes* is the subject of *is forbidden*. In (2) *fish* is the object of the infinitive *to catch*. The object of *likes* is *to catch fish*.

Note that the pronoun alone shows the objective case relation by *form*.

3. Verbs of *giving, telling, promising, teaching, selling, refusing, buying*, etc., apparently take two objects, one denoting a person or thing and the other a thing; as,

1. Father gave *me* a book.
2. The teacher told *us* an interesting story.

Some grammarians call "*book*" and "*story*" *direct objects*, and "*me*" and "*us*" *indirect objects*. As *me* and *us* stand in the old dative case relation, they may with propriety be called *indirect objects*. We may reveal the relations clearly by changing the order of words, thus:

1. My father gave a book (to) me.
2. The teacher told an interesting story (to) us.

It thus appears that *me* and *us* are objects of prepositions, understood in the sentences as first written. *To me* and *to us* are phrases used as adverbs to modify the verbs *gave* and *told*, respectively. Sometimes, however, it is not easy to supply a preposition. The noun or pronoun is then left alone to fill the office of *an adverb*. Hence there is good ground for regarding the noun or pronoun so used as an *adverbial modifier*, equivalent to a phrase used as an adverb. In such cases, then, the noun or

pronoun may be parsed (1) as an indirect object of the verb; (2) as the *object of a preposition* understood; or (3) as an *adverbial modifier*, the equivalent of an adverbial phrase.

Note (1) that the pronoun in this case takes the objective form; and (2) that the noun has the name form.

4. The *direct object* in the active voice should be made the subject in the passive; as,

1. A book was given (to) me by my father.

2. An interesting story was told (to) us by the teacher.

Me and *us* as here used may be parsed as the object of a preposition, expressed or understood, or as an indirect object.

Sometimes, however, we find such constructions as this:

I was given a book by my father.

The *mistake* here made is in making the *indirect object* in the active the subject in the passive. It is not easy to account for the case of *book* in this sentence. Although such constructions are sometimes found in the writings of reputable authors, they are at least anomalous, if not even indefensible. Some treat such constructions as idioms. They are consistent in calling *book* an *idiomatic objective*. Others call *book* a *direct retained object*.

5. Nouns denoting *time*, *distance*, *direction*, *value*, or *measure*, used with verbs and adjectives, may be treated as *adverbial objectives*; as,

1. We waited an *hour*.

2. The lake is two *miles* wide.

3. They went *home*.

4. The hat is worth five *dollars*.

Some say that nouns so used are "*in the objective case without a*

governing word." This may mean, "*in the objective case without a governing word*" expressed. If so, it is intelligible, but not very satisfactory. As we frequently cannot supply the *governing word* without framing very awkward expressions, it seems better to say simply that these *nouns are used adverbially*.

6. Write sentences illustrating the case forms and relations considered in this lesson.

XXVII. CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. Verbs of *making, choosing, calling, appointing, electing*, etc., take two objects denoting the same person or thing; as,

1. They made *Henry king*.

2. We chose *John captain*.

In the first sentence, *Henry* is the direct object of *made*; in the second, *John* is the direct object of *chose*.

Note (1) that, in the first sentence the meaning is, not that *They made Henry*, but that *They made Henry king*. The noun *king* helps the verb *made* to assert the meaning intended—that is, it supplements the meaning of the verb. It also modifies the object *Henry*. For these reasons a noun so used may be called an *objective noun supplement*.

Note (2) that the nouns *king* and *captain* denote the *result* of the actions expressed by the verbs *made* and *chose*, respectively. For this reason, a noun so used is often called a *factive object* (fac = make), or a *resultant object*.

Note (3) that *king* denotes the same person as *Henry*, and *captain* the same person as *John*. For this reason, some call a noun so used an *appositive modifier* of the object, or an *objective appositive*.

2. A noun used as an objective noun supplement is in the objective case relation.

3. When the verb in a sentence containing an objective noun supplement is changed from the active to the passive voice, the direct object in the active becomes the subject in the passive, and the objective noun supplement becomes a subjective noun supplement; as,

Henry was made king by them.

In this sentence, *Henry* and *king* are both in the nominative case. Why?

4. An adjective may be used as an objective supplement; as,

1. They painted the house *green*.

2. He struck the soldier *dead*.

Note the difference between the sentences just given and the following:

1. They *found* the house *green*.

2. He *saw* the soldier *dead*.

Was *the house* "*green*" as a result of *painting*? Of *finding*?
Was *the soldier* "*dead*" as a result of *striking*? Of *seeing*?

An *adjective* that modifies the *object* by denoting the *result* of the action expressed by the verb is called an *objective adjective supplement*.

When a sentence containing an objective adjective supplement is put in the passive voice, the objective adjective supplement becomes a subjective adjective supplement; as,

The house was painted green by them.

5. In the sentence, *They found the dish broken*, *broken* completes the meaning of *found*, and modifies the object *dish*. It is therefore called an *objective adjective complement*. Note

that it does not denote the *result* of the action expressed by the verb.

When a sentence containing an objective adjective complement is put in the passive voice, the objective adjective complement becomes a subjective adjective complement; as,

The dish was found *broken*.

The adjective "*broken*" here *completes* the meaning of the verb *was found* and modifies the subject *dish*. Hence the propriety of the name *subjective adjective complement*.

6. In some constructions the infinitive fills an office closely resembling that of the objective supplement; as,

They made him (*to*) *go*.

Changed to the passive voice it reads thus: He was made to go.

The infinitive is here a subjective supplement. This construction is to be avoided, however, because it is ambiguous, inasmuch as the infinitive may be construed to modify the subject, or to modify the verb by denoting purpose. (See Lesson XLII, 2, (1).)

7. Write six sentences containing objective noun supplements; write them again, putting the verbs in the passive voice; tell the case and the construction of each of the nouns in the twelve sentences.

8. Write six sentences containing objective adjective supplements; write them again, putting the verbs in the passive voice; explain the construction of each of the adjectives in the twelve sentences.

9. Write three sentences containing objective adjective complements; write them again, putting the verbs in the passive voice; explain the construction of the adjective in each of the six sentences.

XXVIII. CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. Sometimes a verb, usually transitive, is followed by a noun of kindred meaning; as,

He *dreamed* a *dream*.

They *ran* a *race*.

Dream and *race* are called *cognate* objects. A cognate object is in the objective case. See the dictionary for the meaning of the word *cognate*.

2. The words *like* and *near*, used as adjectives or as adverbs, are sometimes followed by an objective case; as,

1. You look *like her*.

2. We live *near them*.

The words *her* and *them*, as here used, represent the old dative case. They may be parsed as *indirect objects* after *like* and *near*, or as the objects of a preposition understood or implied, as *to* or *unto*.

3. A compound personal pronoun is sometimes used as a *reflexive object*; as,

1. Young people often admire *themselves*.

2. The mule kicked *himself* loose from the plow.

In 2, *himself* is the object of *kicked loose*, *loose* being an objective adjective supplement.

4. The object of a preposition is in the objective case.

5. The object of a preposition may be:

(a) A noun; as,

They live *in Rome*.

- (b) A pronoun; as,
I wrote *to him*.
- (c) An adjective used as a noun; as,
He cares *for the poor*.
- (d) An adverb used as a noun; as,
Let the great world spin *for aye*.
- (e) A participial phrase; as,
He won my admiration *by doing his duty*.
- (f) An infinitive; as,
No way remains *but to go on*.
- (g) A clause; as,
I was convinced *by what I heard*.

Any structure used as the object of a preposition is said to be in the objective case. The pronoun alone shows this relation *by inflection*.

6. The assumed subject of an infinitive is in the objective case; as,

I believe *him* to be untruthful.

The object of *believe* is *him to be untruthful*, and *him* is called the assumed subject of *to be*. A subject proper names that of which something is *asserted*. As an infinitive can not *assert*, it can not have a *subject proper*.

7. A noun following an *infinitive* of an incomplete intransitive verb and denoting the same person or thing as that denoted by the *assumed subject*, is in the objective case; as,

I believe *it* to be *him*.

This is in harmony with the general rule stated under 3, in Lesson XXIV. One exception to that general rule, however, is found in such constructions as the following:

I have no doubt of *its being she*.

Here the assumed subject *its* has the possessive form while the pronoun following *being* is in the nominative case. For this use of *its*, see 11, Lesson XXIII.

8. Write sentences illustrating all the constructions discussed in this lesson.

XXIX. SUMMARY OF CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES, WITH EXERCISES

I. SUMMARY

1. The nominative case is used:

(a) In grammatical relation to other words:

- (1) As subject of a sentence or clause.
- (2) As subjective noun complement.
- (3) As a subjective noun supplement.
- (4) In apposition with a substantive in the nominative case.

(b) In independent constructions:

- (1) By address (vocative).
- (2) By exclamation.
- (3) By pleonasm (repetition).
- (4) In absolute expressions.

2. The possessive case is used:

- (1) As a possessive modifier.
- (2) In apposition with a substantive in the possessive case.
- (3) As the assumed subject of a participle used as a noun.

NOTE: (3) may be considered a special case of (1).

3. The objective case is used:

- (1) As the direct object of a verb or verbal. (The cognate object and the reflexive object are special cases of the direct object.)
- (2) As an objective noun supplement, or factitive object, or resultant object.
- (3) As the object of a preposition.
- (4) As the assumed subject of an infinitive.
- (5) When the noun after a verb or adjective fills the office of an adverb by denoting *time*, *distance*, etc.
- (6) As an appositive modifier of a substantive in the objective case.
- (7) As an indirect object of a verb or verbal.
- (8) As an indirect object in passive constructions.
- (9) As a direct retained object, or idiomatic objective in passive constructions (questionable).
- (10) After the words *near*, *like*, and *unlike*.

II. EXERCISES

1. Point out all the substantives in the following sentences, explain the construction and tell the case of each:

1. John and I went with them. 2. They went with John and me. 3. I am as tall as he, but he is taller than she. 4. Who besides me do you suppose got a prize? 5. Who wants an orange? I. 6. It was he and she whom you saw. 7. Who do you say they were? 8. I do not know who they were. 9. It is not they who are to blame. 10. I have no doubt of its¹ being they. 11. I do not remember his father's being a

¹ For the use of *its*, see 11, Lesson XXIII. For the use of *they*, see 7, Lesson XXVIII.

judge. 12. That book is his. 13. My book is larger than yours. 14. The mistake was the teacher's, not the pupil's. 15. That horse of the general's was killed. 16. I purchased the book at Penfield, the bookseller's. 17. The flour came from Hill and Smith's store. 18. Hill's and Smith's stores were burned. (Note difference in possessive inflection in 17 and 18. Which shows joint ownership?) 19. My being a child was a plea for my admission. 20. Our fathers, where are they? 21. The sun having risen, we pursued our journey. 22. The boys chose John leader. 23. John was chosen leader.

2. Analyze the foregoing sentences.

XXX. EXERCISES IN CASE FORMS AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES

1. Explain the construction and state the case of each substantive in these sentences:

1. He is like his father. 2. We drove home in a storm. 3. Come walk with me the jungle through. 4. They made him their leader. 5. He was made their leader. 6. They offered him the crown. 7. The crown was offered him. 8. The child is nine years old. 9. He is worth a million dollars. 10. The ear is the ever-open gateway of the soul. 11. A dainty plant is the ivy green. 12. Stillness of person and steadiness of features are signal marks of good breeding. 13. We should consider time as a sacred trust. 14. The tadpole, or polliwog, becomes a frog. 15. The turtle's backbone and breast-bone—its shell and coat of armor—are on the outside of its body. 16. The petals of the daisy—*day's eye*—close at night and in rainy weather. 17. Aristotle taught Alexander the Great phil-

osophy. 18. The pure attar of roses is worth twenty or thirty dollars an ounce. 19. We should learn to govern ourselves. 20. I supposed him to be a gentleman. 21. Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense, lie in three words—health, peace, and competence. 22. The setting of a great hope is like the setting of the sun. 23. Prayer is the key of the morning and the bolt of the night. 24. A giant towered he among men. 25. Feet was I to the lame. 26. Those are my sentiments, madam. 27. I promised him a dollar. 28. The swan achieved what the goose conceived. 29. We are certain that an open sea surrounds the Pole. 30. He does not know whom he should send. 31. She was neither better nor wiser than you or I. 32. It was not they, it was she. 33. He was angry, and I too. 34. It was Joseph, he whom Pharaoh promoted. 35. I knew it to be him. 36. I know it was he. 37. Who did you suppose it was? 38. Whom did you suppose it to be? 39. I thought that tall man to be him. 40. Between you and me, I believe he is losing his mind. 41. Whom did he refer to, him or me? 42. Did he choose you or me? 43. I referred to my old friend, him of whom I have so often spoken. 44. You, he, and I were invited. 45. They invited you, him, and me. 46. The same message was sent to him, her, and me. 47. It is not I he is in love with. 48. Whom do you see? 49. Who did that? We girls. 50. Let him be who he may, I fear him not. 51. I being away, they could not go. 52. Do you approve of his becoming a suitor? 53. I bought him the toy this morning at Smith the grocer's. 54. It was she who you thought took the book. 55. He that hath ears to hear, let him hear. 56. John's being called a coward did not make him one. 57. To refuse to do a bad thing, is to do a good one. 58. A train, five cars long, passed the depot.

2. Analyze the foregoing sentences.

XXXI. CONSTRUCTIONS OF ADJECTIVES

1. An adjective is usually defined as a word used to modify a noun or pronoun. This is satisfactory as an expression of the *grammatical relation* of the adjective and the noun or pronoun as elements of the sentence. *Logically*, however, the adjective always expresses an *attribute of the object represented* by the noun or pronoun. For example, in the sentence, *John is honest*, the quality of *honesty*, expressed by the adjective *honest*, is an attribute of the person represented by the noun *John*, and not an attribute of the *noun*.

2. As an element of the sentence, the adjective has six constructions:

(1) As an *attributive modifier*; as,

Honest people are trusted.

In this case, the quality of honesty is attributed directly to people.

(2) As an *appositive modifier*; as,

People, *honest* in their dealings, are trusted.

In this case, the adjective expressing the quality follows the modified substantive as does a noun in apposition.

It may be noted, too, that the appositive expression is the result of the abridgment of an adjective clause. The unabridged form is this: People who are honest in their dealings are trusted.

(3) As a *subjective adjective complement*; as,

The people are *honest*.

In this construction the *adjective* expresses a quality of the *subject* and completes the *predicate*. Hence the propriety of the term *subjective adjective complement*.

For apparent reasons some prefer to call the adjective in this

construction a *predicate adjective*; others, an *attribute complement*. These terms are, however, not quite definite.

(4) As an *objective adjective supplement*; as,

He struck the man *dead*.

Here the adjective modifies the *object* "man" and *supplements* the meaning of the *verb*. It should be noted that the condition expressed by the adjective results from the action denoted by the verb: the man was *dead* because of the *striking*.

(5) As an *objective adjective complement*; as,

He found the man *dead*.

Here the word *dead* modifies the object *man*; but it does not denote a quality or condition that results from the action expressed by the verb. Note this clear distinction between the objective adjective *supplement* and the objective adjective *complement*—a distinction which some fail to observe. Others confuse the appositive adjective modifier and the objective adjective complement. The appositive modifier may be expanded into an adjective clause, while the objective adjective complement may not, without changing the meaning.

EXAMPLES: (a) Appositive modifier—We trust a man, *honest in his dealings* = We trust a man who is honest in his dealings.

(b) Objective adjective complement—*We found the child alive* does not = *We found the child that was alive*.

When the verb in a sentence containing an objective adjective complement is changed to the passive voice, the adjective becomes a subjective adjective complement; as,

The child was found *alive*.

(6) As an *adverbial subjective complement*; as,

He stands *firm*.

Here the adjective *firm* divides its modifying force between the subject *he* and the verb *stands*, thus performing in part the function of an adjective, and in part that of an adverb.

3. Write two sentences illustrating each of the six constructions of the adjective.

XXXII. EQUIVALENTS OF THE ADJECTIVE

EXERCISES

1. The equivalents of the adjective are:

(1) A noun or pronoun in the possessive form; as,
The *mountain's* crest was covered with snow.

(2) A noun in apposition; as,
The apostle *Paul* preached to the Romans.

(3) A phrase:

(a) Infinitive; as,
The desire *to do good* controlled his life.

(b) Participial; as,
The captain, *deserted by his men*, surrendered.

(c) Prepositional; as,
The voice *of Grady* is silent.

(4) A clause; as,
The man *that is true to himself* is always true to others.

NOTE: Common nouns are often used as adjectives, as in these expressions: *An iron bridge, a gold ring, a silver spoon, a tin roof, a brass kettle, an oil lamp*, etc.

2. In the following sentences, point out the adjectives and the structures used as adjectives, tell what each modifies, and explain the construction of each:

1. Drowsy tinklings lull the distant fold.
 2. Wide is the gate and broad is the way.
 3. The excitement on shore became wild.
 4. He, old, crippled, and poor, was glad to die.
 5. Her sorrows have made her melancholy.
 6. Bacon was called the wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind.
 7. Shafts of sunshine from the west paint the dusky windows red.
 8. My keepers grew compassionate.
 9. What a piece of work is man.
 10. A little learning is a dangerous thing.
3. Analyze the foregoing sentences.

XXXIII. EXERCISES IN ADJECTIVES, IN SUBSTANTIVES, AND IN ANALYSIS

1. Point out the adjectives and the structures used as equivalents of adjectives, tell what each modifies, and explain the construction of each:

1. This life of ours is a wild Æolian harp of many a strain.
2. Still stands the forest primeval.
3. Time wasted is existence; used, is life.
4. To lie is sinful.
5. That all men are created equal, is self-evident.
6. The census is taken every ten years.

Here *every*, a singular adjective, modifies *ten years* as a collective number denoting one period of time.

7. Many a flower is born to blush unseen.

Many is a plural adjective; but the phrase *many a* is singular, and should be parsed as a single word.

8. Yonder proud ships are not means of annoyance to you.
 9. We were the first that ever burst into that silent sea.
 10. He painted the box white.
 11. I consider her conduct inexcusable.
 12. I laid bare our plans.
 13. There came a time when he regretted his decision.
 14. The vessel which you see is a sloop.
 15. Study nature, whose laws and phenomena are deeply interesting.
 16. A woman whose tongue speaks no guile is surely free from sin.
 17. Idleness is the Dead Sea which swallows up all virtue.
 18. No life can be well ended that is not well spent.
 19. An idler is a watch that wants both hands.
 20. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.
 21. They found the baby asleep.
 22. The baby was found asleep.
 23. We found the poor woman in need.
2. Point out the substantives in the foregoing sentences, telling the case and explaining the construction of each.
 3. Analyze the foregoing sentences.

XXXIV. FORMS, FUNCTIONS, AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF PARTICIPLES

1. The participle is derived from the verb, is a form

of the verb, but, lacking the power to assert, or predicate, which is the characteristic function of the verb, it is called a *verbal*, not a verb.

2. The participle is *like* the verb (1) in that it may be modified by an adverb, or its equivalents, as its verb may, and (2) in that it may take an object, a complement, or a supplement, as its verb may.

3. The participle *resembles* its verb in that it *assumes*, or *expresses*, action, being, etc., while its verb *asserts*, or *predicates*, action, being, etc.

4. The participle is *unlike* its verb in that, in addition to *assuming* action, being, etc., it performs the function of an *adjective* or of a *noun*.

5. An intransitive verb has three participial forms; as, *coming*, *come*, *having come*.

6. A transitive verb has six participial forms; as,

(a) Active: *Knowing*, *known*, *having known*.

(b) Passive: *Being known*, *known*, *having been known*.

NOTE 1: For participial forms arranged by tenses, etc., see Conjugation, Appendix C.

NOTE 2: For use of simple participial forms, like *knowing* and *known*, in forming verb phrases, see Appendix C; also Part Two, Lesson LXII, 8, 9, and 13, and Lesson LXV, 1, *et al*.

This is the most common use of these forms; yet, when so used, they become constituent parts of verb phrases, and are not to be considered separately as participial forms.

7. The participle may be used as an attributive modifier; as,

1. *Running* water is beautiful.

2. Thy *spoken* word is master of thee.

NOTE 1: In this case the participle resembles the adjective more closely than it does the verb, its function being to express *quality* rather than *action*. A participle so used is sometimes so far like an adjective as to admit of comparison, and so far loses its verbal nature as to be modified by *very*, which never modifies a verb; as, *a most shocking spectacle, a very striking face*.

NOTE 2: The attributive (adjective) participle is sometimes equivalent to the substantive participle after the preposition *for*; as,

A *dining-room* = A room for dining.

A *sleeping-car* = A car for sleeping.

8. The participle may be used as an appositive modifier; as,

1. The sentinel, *looking* intently, saw the dim figure of a man in the shadow of the wall.

2. The man *seen* in the shadow of the wall was a scout.

3. We met a poor old woman, *bowed* down with age, *carrying* a large basket.

Note that the first sentence may be expanded into a simple sentence containing a compound predicate; the second, into a complex sentence containing a restrictive adjective clause; the third, into a complex sentence containing a compound unrestrictive adjective clause.

Expand and analyze them. In these cases it is easy to see that the participle is used *adjectively*.

Frequently, however, similar constructions result from the abridgment of *adverb clauses*; as,

4. He pays his debts *because he is honest* = He, *being honest*, pays his debts.

5. *Although this writing was done a hundred years ago*, it is still legible = This writing *although done a hundred years ago*, is still legible.

Note that in each of these cases the participle, used as an appositive modifier of a substantive, is grammatically an adjective, although it logically takes the place of an adverb clause.

9. Write two sentences illustrating each construction mentioned in this lesson.

XXXV. CONSTRUCTIONS OF PARTICIPLES

1. The participle may be used as a *subjective complement*; as,

The blade is *broken*.

Although this construction has the form of a passive voice construction, the participle is used precisely as a subjective adjective complement, as in this sentence: *The blade is rusty*. It should be noted, too, that the participles of intransitive verbs, which are of course never used in passive constructions, are often found in this construction. These are familiar examples: *The snow is gone*. *The tree is fallen*. *He is risen*. *The melancholy days are come*.

Some regard this use of the participle as *idiomatic*.

2. The participle may be used as an *objective complement*; as,

We found him *dying*.

3. The participle may be used as an *adverbial subjective complement*; as,

Sometimes a leaf came *floating* and *wavering* downward, and settled on the water.—LONGFELLOW.

These participles partake of the nature of these three parts of speech:

1. Verbs, in denoting action.
2. Adjectives, in modifying the noun *leaf*.
3. Adverbs, in modifying the verb *come*—they tell the *manner of coming*, or the *means of coming*.

4. The participle may be used in an *absolute expression* with a noun or pronoun; as,

The moon having risen, the army began to move.

NOTE: This construction should be carefully distinguished from the appositive construction.

Study these examples:

1. *When he lost his property* he became despondent = *Having lost his property*, he became despondent = He, *having lost his property*, became despondent.

2. *When the storm destroyed his property*, he became despondent = *The storm having destroyed his property*, he became despondent.

The first illustrates the appositive construction; the second, the absolute. The two constructions are *alike* in that each takes the place of a dependent clause. They are *unlike* in that the appositive construction takes the place of a clause having a subject denoting the same person or thing as the subject of its principal clause, while the absolute expression takes the place of a clause *not* having the same subject as its principal clause. Try this test with the two examples given, as first written. The appositive participle modifies *he*, the subject of the principal clause; the absolute participle has no grammatical relation to *he*, the subject of the principal proposition, but is used absolutely, with *storm*, its assumed subject.

5. The participle may be used in an *independent expression*; as,

Speaking confidentially, I think you should not trust her.

Note that there is no noun or pronoun used with this participle as an assumed subject.

6. Write two sentences illustrating each of the constructions mentioned in this lesson.

XXXVI. CONSTRUCTIONS OF PARTICIPLES

1. The participles may be used as the *subject of a verb*; as,
Reading poetry was to him a diversion.

Note that in this and the following constructions the participle partakes of the nature of the *verb* and the *noun*.

2. The participle may be used as a *subjective complement*; as,
His favorite pastime was *reading* poetry.

3. The participle may be used as the *object of a verb*; as,
They doubt *his writing* the letter.

4. The participle may be used as the *object of a preposition*; as,
The teacher objected to *my quitting* the class.

5. The participle is sometimes found in *apposition* with a substantive; as,

She was engaged in her usual occupation, *reading novels*.

6. Occasionally the participle is used *as an adverb* to modify the adjective *worth*; as,

The experiment is worth *trying*.

Note that this use of the participle is like the adverbial use of nouns to denote measure, etc. See Lesson XXVI, 5.

7. The participle in attributive (adjective) construction becomes a *substantive* when the modified noun is omitted; as,

Rescue the *perishing*. Care for the *dying*.

8. There are a few cases in which the participle is used as an *adverb of degree* modifying an adjective; as,

The water is *boiling* hot.

9. Write two sentences illustrating each construction mentioned in this lesson.

XXXVII. SUMMARY OF PARTICIPIAL CONSTRUCTIONS—EXERCISES

1. *The Participle* may be used in these constructions:

(a) *As an Adjective.*

(1) As an attributive modifier.

(2) As an appositive modifier.

(3) As a subjective complement.

(4) As an objective complement.

(5) As an adverbial subjective complement.

(This construction is partly adjectival and partly adverbial.)

(6) In an absolute expression.

(b) *Without syntactical relation.* (In an independent participial expression.)

(c) *As a Substantive.*

(1) As the subject of a verb.

(2) As a subjective complement.

(3) As the object of a verb.

(4) As the object of a preposition.

(5) In apposition with a substantive.

(6) As a substantive when the modified noun is omitted.

(d) *As an Adverb.*

(1) To modify an adjective, by denoting degree.

(2) As an adverbial noun to modify the adjective *worth*.

2. Point out the participles in these sentences, and explain fully the construction of each:

1. She burnt her hand in the cooking apples.

2. She bought some cooking apples.
3. The weather is freezing cold.
4. The rising sun hides the stars.
5. Looking from the window, I saw the crowd dispersing.
6. The house is deserted.
7. We heard him coming.
8. The child came running into the house.
9. The living need thy aid.
10. You must use boiling hot water.
11. Speaking unofficially, the decision was just.
12. Her work done, the tired wife sat down to rest.
13. His losing his purse prevented his going.
14. His favorite amusement is playing tennis.
15. The teacher did not like my having left the room.
16. I heard of your winning the prize.
17. This task, teaching the young, is not easy.
18. This is worth knowing.
19. He planned to ride in a sleeping-car.

XXXVIII. EXERCISES IN PARTICIPIAL CONSTRUCTIONS

Point out the participles and explain fully the construction of each:

1. The wind was stinging cold.
2. Speaking of those squash-bugs, I think I disheartened them by covering the plants with soot.
3. He was noted for his success in capturing Spanish ships

freighted with silver brought from the mines of Mexico and Peru.

4. The girths of his saddle gave way and he felt it slipping from under him.

5. Knowing that I have no right to speak here, I ask your leave.

6. The fog came pouring in at every chink and keyhole.

7. Each soul was solemn, as if facing the Maker of the world.

8. Nature, her patience with him being ended, leaves him desolate.

9. Mrs. Cratchit made the gravy hissing hot.

10. To-day's being Sunday rather complicates matters.

11. Her heavy black hair lay in a braided coil, with a long gold pin shot through it like a javelin.

12. And then again, a thousand echoes go booming along the iron-bound coast.

13. A serious percentage of books are not worth reading at all.

14. There are but three ways of living: By working, by stealing, or by begging.

15. It is not the finding of a thing, but the making of something out of it after it is found, that is of consequence.

16. He spent all the day roaming over the house.

17. And children coming home from school look in at the open door.

18. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing, onward through life he goes.

19. And he, neglected and oppressed, wished to be with them at rest.

20. But Morn, her rosy steps in th' eastern clime advancing, sowed the earth with orient pearl.

21. A boy, playing on the shore, found an oar lost from a boat.

22. The army, flushed with victory, marched onward.
23. Having sold my farm, I shall remove to Iowa.
24. Said but once, said but softly, not marked at all, words revive before me in darkness and solitude.
25. Have you not seen strong men weeping?
26. Rolling stones gather no moss.
27. Heaped in the hollows of the grove, the withered leaves lie dead.
28. Looking out of my window, I saw a crow perched upon the edge of the nest.
29. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.
30. The waves came crouching at my feet.
31. Trying to do a good deed is doing a good deed.

XXXIX. EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS

Analyze the sentences given in Lesson XXXVIII.

XL. EXERCISE IN CONSTRUCTIONS

Explain the construction of each substantive and each adjective in the sentences given in Lessons XXXVII and XXXVIII.

XLI. FORMS, FUNCTIONS, AND CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE INFINITIVE

1. The infinitive is a form of the verb, but, lacking the power to assert, it is called a *verbal*.
2. An infinitive of a transitive verb has six forms; as,

<i>Active</i>	{	<i>Present</i>	{ <i>Common</i> —to know. <i>Progressive</i> —to be knowing.
		<i>Perfect</i>	{ <i>Common</i> —to have known. <i>Progressive</i> —to have been knowing.
<i>Passive</i>	{	<i>Present</i>	—to be known.
		<i>Perfect</i>	—to have been known.

3. The infinitive of an intransitive verb, lacking the passive forms, has but four forms.

4. The infinitive is so called because it is not limited in person, or number. The word *infinitive* means *unlimited*.

5. The infinitive *resembles* the finite verb in that it *expresses* or *assumes* action, being, etc., while the finite verb *asserts* or *predicates* action, being, etc.

6. The infinitive is *like* the finite verb (1) in that it may be modified by an adverb, (2) in that it may govern an object, and (3) in that it may take a complement or a supplement.

7. The infinitive is *unlike* the finite verb (1) in that it lacks the power of predication, (2) in that it has not person or number, and (3) in that it usually performs the function of another part of speech, as the noun, the adjective, or the adverb.

8. The present active infinitive is the form most frequently used. It is often called *the simple infinitive*. It is the name form of the verb, usually preceded by *to*.

9. The infinitive is often found in combination with other words forming a phrase, the base-word of which is the infinitive. Such a phrase is called an *infinitive phrase*.

10. The infinitive, *in the construction of the noun*, may be used:

(1) As the *subject* of a sentence; as,

To do his work well was his delight.

The subject is *To do his work well*, an infinitive phrase, of which *the base* is the simple infinitive *To do*.

In this construction, by the use of the anticipative subject *it*, the words may be so arranged as to place the real subject after the predicate; as,

It was his chief delight to do his work well.

Under this arrangement, some construe the infinitive as in apposition with *it*, treating *it* as the subject. It is preferable, however, to treat the infinitive as the subject, and *it* as the mere *expletive*, or anticipative subject.

(2) As the *object* of a verb; as,

He determined *to go*.

The same thought may be expressed thus: He determined *that he would go*. This shows that the infinitive, in this construction, is equivalent to a substantive clause.

It may be noted, however, that after some verbs the infinitive may take the place of an object clause only when the subject of this clause is the same as the subject of the principal clause. Try these sentences:

1. He determined that he would go.

2. He determined that I should go.

But after other verbs the rule just stated does not hold. Try these sentences:

1. He expected that he would go.

2. He expected that I would go.

The thought in the last sentence given may be expressed thus: He expected me to go. Some erroneously treat *me to go* as a *clause*. A clause *must have* a subject and a predicate. The infinitive *to go* can not *predicate* action, and therefore can not have a subject proper. At best, *me* is merely an assumed subject.

Note that the object of *expected* is *me to go*, not *me*, or *to go*.

- (3) As a *subjective complement*; as,

His highest ambition was *to amass a fortune*.

- (4) As the *object of a preposition*; as,

There was no way of escape except *to cross the river*.

Except, and its equivalents, *but* and *save*, are perhaps the only prepositions after which the simple infinitive may be used as an object. After these prepositions the sign of the infinitive, *to*, is sometimes omitted; as, *He could do nothing but blush*.

In a few cases an *infinitive phrase* is the object of a preposition, usually understood; as, *I am at a loss (about, or as to) what to do next*. *They were at their wits' end (about, or as to) what to do with the child*.

- (5) As the *direct retained object* after a verb in the passive voice; as,

I was told *to study my lesson*. (See Lesson XXVI, 3 and 4.)

- (6) In *apposition* with a substantive; as,

He has formed a resolution *to read good books only*.

The infinitive as here used is almost equivalent to an *unrestrictive adjective clause*, which is *to read good books only*.

11. Write sentences to exemplify all the constructions mentioned in this lesson.

XLII. CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE INFINITIVE

(CONTINUED)

1. The infinitive, in the construction of an *adjective* may be used:

- (a) *To modify a noun* directly; as,

(1) That is a scheme *to make money*.

This infinitive, *to make money*, is equivalent to *money-making*, or *for making money*.

(2) Earnest people will always find duties to perform.

Note that the active infinitive, *to perform*, has here the meaning of the passive form *to be performed*.

(3) A man with a message worth hearing will always find people to listen.

Note that the infinitive, *to listen*, is here equivalent to the restrictive adjective clause, *who will listen*.

There is a clear distinction between this infinitive and the *appositive infinitive* given in Lesson XLI, under 10, (6). In regard to that case we could say, *His resolution is to read*, etc., which shows that *to read*, explaining what his *resolution* is, is an appositive modifier. But we cannot say, *men are to listen*.

This construction is to be distinguished from that found in *He expected me to go*. See Lesson XLI, 10, (2). *Me* is the assumed subject of *to go*; for when the infinitive phrase is changed to a clause, *me* (I) becomes the subject of *would go*. But *men* is not the assumed subject of *to listen*; for *who*, and not *men*, becomes the subject of the clause.

(b) As a *subjective complement*; as,

(1) His conduct is *to be regretted*.

This construction is like that given under 10, (3), Lesson XLI, except that in this case the infinitive is used adjectively, while in that it was used substantively. Other copulative verbs besides *be* may be followed by this construction; as,

(2) He seems *to try*.

(3) He appears *to understand*.

2. The infinitive, in the construction of an *adverb*, may be used:

(1) To *modify a verb*; as,

(a) They sailed down the bay *to fish for tarpon*.

(b) During his absence he grew *to be a man*.

(c) I grieve *to learn of your loss*.

Note that the infinitive in (a) denotes *purpose*; in (b), *result*; and in (c), *cause*. In this construction, it may also be used to denote *reason, condition, manner*, etc.

(2) To *modify an adjective*; as,

He is anxious *to go*.

(3) To *modify an adverb*; as,

The child is old enough *to attend school*.

3. An infinitive phrase may be used *independently*; as,

To be candid with you, I think you have done wrong.

4. The infinitive may be used with some forms of *go* and *use* to form idiomatic verb-phrases; as,

(a) He is going *to start to-night*.

(b) She used *to study well*.

Note that *go* and *use* in these cases are both intransitive. For other idiomatic constructions, see Lesson LVII.

5. Write sentences to exemplify all the constructions mentioned in this lesson.

XLIII. EXERCISE IN INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

Point out the infinitives, name the form, and explain fully the construction of each.

1. To betray one's country is perfidious.

2. They like to sing.

3. My wish is to succeed.

4. No way remains but to go on.
5. This duty, to take care of his father, was never neglected.
6. I was invited to visit his home.
7. The house is to be sold.
8. We study to improve our minds.
9. They were eager to hear the news.
10. The apples are ripe enough to eat.
11. I heard him scream.
12. To tell the truth, I did not believe one word of the story.
13. I am going to read the book.
14. I used to wonder why you liked her.
15. There is nothing to do.
16. It is excellent to have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant.
17. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.
18. Your duty is to do your best at each task.
19. To live in hearts we leave behind is not to die.
20. This task, to keep her own room clean, was very distasteful.
21. Fools who came to scoff remained to pray.
22. We eat to live; we do not live to eat.
23. I used to know this; how have I come to forget it!
24. He taught her to see new beauties in nature.
25. They were petrified, so to speak.
26. 'T is better to have loved and lost, than never to have loved at all.
27. A man has no more right to say an uncivil thing than to act one.
28. To climb steep hills requires slow pace at first.

29. To see is to believe.
30. The teacher told the pupils to sing.
31. The sower went forth to sow.
32. I am glad to hear this.
33. The governor's authority is to be supported.
34. To obey is better than to be punished.
35. The mother rejoiced to hear of her son's success.
36. To know what to do, and how best to do it, is wisdom.
37. The way to be original is to be healthy.
38. The idea of a man's interviewing himself is rather odd, to be sure.
39. It was death for a soldier to leave his colors.
40. It seemed a time to strike a blow for freedom.
41. It is such a sad thing to be born a sneaking fellow, so much worse than to inherit a humpback.
42. She had the natural tendency of excellent people to place others in subjection.
43. The way to speak and write what shall not go out of fashion is to speak and write sincerely.
44. There is no beautifier of complexion, or form, or behavior, like the wish to scatter joy, and not pain, around us.

XLIV. EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS

1. Analyze the sentences given in Lesson XLIII.
2. Point out the substantives, the adjectives, and the participles found in the sentences given in Lesson XLIII, and explain the construction of each.

XLV. CLAUSES CONTRACTED INTO PARTICIPIAL PHRASES—CAUTION

1. Sometimes, as we have seen, an adverb clause may be contracted into a participial phrase; as,

When I called to see my friend, I found him to be better.

Calling to see my friend, I found him to be better.

It should be noted that in the sentence as first given, the subject of the adverb clause is the same as the subject of the principal clause, *I*. Hence in the contracted sentence, the participial phrase logically modifies *I*.

Note this sentence:

When I called to see my friend, he seemed to be better.

Contracted, it will read thus:

Calling to see my friend, he seemed to be better.

This makes the participial phrase appear to modify *he*, which is incorrect, because *he* is not the subject of the adverb clause.

CAUTION: Do not contract an adverb clause into a participial phrase modifying the subject of the principal clause unless both clauses have the same subject.

2. Explain wherein the foregoing caution is violated in each of these sentences:

1. When fastened to a firm wall, we found the blackboard to be steady.

2. Being fond of birds, an aviary is kept in the yard.

3. Desiring to hear some good music, Miss Jones was invited to sing.

4. Wishing him to come at once, a telegram was sent to him.

5. Seeing that nothing could be done, the plan was abandoned.

6. Learning that they were in need, aid was sent to them.
7. Being ripe, sound, and luscious, we enjoyed the peaches very much.
8. Having spent all our money, the journey was discontinued.
9. Having been lost for two days, we found the poor boy almost famished.

EXPLANATION: In the last sentence as it stands, the participial phrase, *Having been lost for two days*, logically modifies *we*. Hence the sentence means this:

We, having been lost for two days, found the poor boy almost famished.

To express the meaning intended it should read thus: Having been lost for two days, the poor boy was found almost famished. The same meaning may also be expressed thus: The poor boy, having been lost for two days, was found almost famished. The same thought may also be expressed in this form:

We found the poor boy almost famished, he having been lost for two days.

In this last form, *he having been lost for two days* is an absolute expression.

Explain what each of the other eight sentences means as it stands, and also state the different ways in which the thought intended may be correctly expressed.

3. Copy or compose three sentences in violation of the *caution* given, and then write the sentences in correct form.

XLVI. ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS: WHEN USED, AND HOW PLACED

1. Copulative verbs regularly take adjectives, and not adverbs, in the predicate; as,

He is *angry*. He looks *angry*. He seems *angry*. He appears *angry*. He feels *angry*.

In contrast with these, study the following:

He spoke *angrily*. He cried *angrily*. He looked *angrily* at the child. He walked *angrily* from the room.

In each of the first group, *angry* is correctly used to modify the subject; in each of the second group, *angrily* is correctly used to modify the verb.

2. Notice the difference in use between *prompt* and *promptly* in these:

1. The servant *appears prompt* in her habits.

2. When the bell rings, the servant *appears promptly*.

In (1), *prompt* expresses a *quality of "the servant"*; in (2), *promptly* describes the *manner of appearing*.

3. We may say, the moon shines *bright*; or, the moon shines *brightly*. The first asserts of the moon the quality of *brightness*; the second asserts that the moon shines *in a bright manner*.

In choosing between an adjective and an adverb, the meaning intended to be conveyed is the only safe guide. Only remember that adjectives should be used to modify substantives, and adverbs to modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

4. In each of the following sentences, tell whether the adjective or the adverb should be used, and give reason. If both may be used, explain difference in meaning:

1. How do you feel to-day? I feel tolerable or tolerably. I feel tolerable well or tolerably well. I feel bad or badly.

2. She looked sweet or sweetly.

3. The fields look beautiful, or beautifully, now.

4. The situation looked favorable or favorably.

5. She looked sad or sadly when she heard the news.
6. She looked sad or sadly at the poor child.
7. My eyelids felt heavy or heavily for want of sleep.
8. They arrived safe or safely.
9. You should speak slower or more slowly.
10. She went sad or sadly to her lonely cottage.
11. She did not speak distinct or distinctly enough.
12. The child was near or nearly famished.
13. She looked charming or charmingly in her new dress.
14. I shall value his friendship higher or more highly.

5. Note the change in meaning as the place of *only* is changed in these sentences:

1. The only boy lost his hat.
2. The boy only lost his hat.
3. The boy lost only his hat.
4. The boy lost his only hat.
5. The boy lost his hat only.

6. Note the change in meaning as the place of *even* is changed in these sentences:

1. Even his suspicions were excited by the man's face.
2. His suspicions even were excited by the man's face.
3. His suspicions were excited by even the man's face.
4. His suspicions were even excited by the man's face.
5. His suspicions were excited by the man's face even.

7. The examples given under 5 and 6 show that the meaning of the sentence often depends upon how adjectives and adverbs are placed. The same is true of adjective and adverb clauses.

Hence we should be careful so to place modifiers as to convey the meaning intended.

8. Correct the errors in the placing of modifiers in these sentences:

1. A purse was found by a boy made of leather.
2. The pupil will receive a reward from the teacher who is diligent.
3. He should not keep a horse that can not ride.
4. He brought in a new plate of honey.
5. They sell black boys' hats.
6. I have thought of marrying often.
7. He only eats two meals a day.
8. All that glitters is not gold.
9. All is not gold that glitters.
10. His escape almost appears miraculous.
11. A large number of seats were occupied by pupils that had no backs.
12. Hay is given to horses as well as corn.
13. He rode to town and drove twelve cows on horseback.
14. Only the name of one great man was mentioned.
15. He could only live very modestly.
16. He could only afford to keep one horse.
17. Such disputes can only be settled by arms.
18. We can only spend our life once.
19. He went to Rome, whence he was never destined to return.
20. I do not ever remember to have been so sorry.
21. He only came yesterday.

XLVII. CONCORD OF VERB AND SUBJECT

Read again Lesson LX, Part Two.

RULE:

A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

1. We have already learned that the rule just stated has but limited application in modern English, because of the fact that our verb has but little inflection to denote either person or number. We shall now study some special applications of this rule.

2. The singular form of the verb is used:

a. When the subject is singular in form and meaning; as,

John *is* an honest boy.

b. When the subject consists of two or more nouns or pronouns singular in form and meaning, connected by *or* or *nor*; as,

1. James or John *is* wrong.

2. Neither James nor John *was* there.

3. Neither he nor she *was* there.

c. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns, each modified by *each*, *every*, *no*, *many* *a*, or such other adjective; as,

1. Each boy and girl *is* expected to sing.

2. Every law and usage *was* a man's expedient.

d. When the subject consists of two singular nouns joined by *with*, *like*, *unlike*, or *as well as*; as,

1. The mother, as well as the child, *was* lost.

2. John, unlike his brother, *is* honest.

3. Jane, with her sister, *has* come.

e. When the first of two subjects connected by *with*, *like*,

unlike, or *as well as*, is singular, notwithstanding the second may be plural; as,

1. The teacher, as well as the pupils, *was* absent.

2. The king, with all his hosts, *has* come.

f. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns in apposition; as,

Dr. Jones, my physician, my neighbor, my friend, *is* dead.

g. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns, not joined by conjunctions, but mentioned in an emphatic way; as,

A fever, a mutilation, a cruel disappointment, a loss of wealth, a loss of friends, *seems* at the moment unpaid loss. EMERSON.

h. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns connected by *and*, but thought of as taken together to form one general notion; as,

Bread and butter *is* a wholesome diet.

i. When the subject is a collective noun representing a collective thought of as forming one unit or body; as,

The herd *was* sold for \$10,000.

j. When the subject is a noun, plural in form but singular in meaning; as,

1. Two-thirds of the wheat *was* destroyed.

2. Ten dollars *is* too much.

3. Twenty years *is* a long time to wait.

4. "Sesame and Lilies" *was* written by Ruskin.

k. When the subject is a partitive¹ followed by *of* and a noun singular in meaning; as,

¹ A *partitive* is a word denoting a part.

1. *Part* of the corn *was* wasted.
2. *Some* of the land *was* too wet.

Note that *Some*, and not land, is the subject of *was*.

3. Write two sentences illustrating each of the eleven cases mentioned in 2.

XLVIII. CONCORD OF VERB AND SUBJECT

(CONTINUED)

1. The plural form of the verb is used:

a. When the subject is a noun or pronoun plural in form and meaning; as,

1. *Leaves fall* in autumn.
2. *They come* again in spring.

b. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by *and* and forming a subject plural in meaning; as,

1. *April and May are* spring months.
2. *He and she are* my friends.

EXCEPTION: Sometimes when the verb precedes a subject consisting of two or more nouns, it agrees with the first and is to be supplied with each of the others; as,

There was a fearful cry from heaven, and great claps of thunder.
Supply *there were* after *and*.

c. When the subject is a collective noun representing several persons or things thought of as individuals; as,

A herd of cattle *were* grazing on the prairie.

d. When the subject is a singular noun so modified by adjectives as to have a plural meaning; as,

1. Moral, physical, and mental education *receive* due attention.

2. A red and a white cow *were* in the lot.

e. When the subject is a partitive followed by *of* and a noun plural in meaning; as,

1. *Some* of the boys *were* absent.

2. *One third* of the words *are* misspelled.

Note that *one third*, and not *words*, is the subject of *are*; but the modifying phrase *of words* gives *one third* a plural meaning. We should of course say, *One third* of the *work* was done, not *were* done.

f. When the subject is a singular noun like *plenty*, *variety*, *number*, or *abundance*, followed by *of* and a plural noun, when the assertion relates directly to the objects named by the plural noun; as,

1. *Plenty* of sentences *have* been written.

2. A great *variety* of roses *are* found in Texas.

Note (1) that *variety* is singular in form and is neither a partitive, nor a strictly collective noun. Hence its taking a plural verb can not be explained by case *e* or by case *c*. But the assertion relates so directly to *roses* as to require a plural verb. The thought is that *roses* in great variety *are* found, rather than that "*a variety*" *is* found. If, however, the intention is to assert that the *variety* is great, rather than that there are many roses, *is found* should be used.

g. When the subject is *few*, *many*, *several*, etc., whether unmodified, or modified by a prepositional phrase introduced by *of*; as,

1. *Few* *have* come.

2. *Few* of the men *have* come.

NOTE: *Any, some, most, none, the rest*, etc., used in this way are to be treated as *partitives*.

Some grammarians, defining *none* as meaning *no one*, say that it should always take a singular verb. Our best dictionaries, however, define *none* as sometimes meaning *not any*. In this sense it may be either singular or plural; as,

1. None of the coal *was* left.
2. None of the girls *were* here.

It is so used by the best writers.

2. When there are two subjects, and one of them is preceded by a negative, the verb agrees with the other in number; as,

1. *We*, not he, *are* wrong.
2. Not we, but *he is* wrong.

3. When the verb is placed between a singular and a plural subject it agrees with the first; as,

1. The leader *was* slain, and all his men.
2. All the men *were* slain, and the leader.

NOTE: *Were slain* is understood after *men* in (1), and *was slain* after *leader* in (2).

4. Write two sentences to illustrate each case considered in this lesson.

XLIX. CONCORD OF VERB AND SUBJECT

(CONTINUED)

1. A verb having for its subject a single noun or pronoun agrees with it in person; as,

1. *I am* here.
2. *Thou art* here.
3. *John is* here.

2. Notice these sentences:

I hope that *you and I* shall soon meet again.

I hope that *we* shall soon meet again.

This shows that *you and I = we*.

In the same way it may be shown that *he and I = we*, that *she and I = we*, that *you and we = we*, that *John and I = we*, that *they and we = we*, etc.

Hence it follows that any subject made up of *I* or *we* connected by *and* with any other pronoun or with any noun is equal to *we*, and therefore takes a verb in the first person plural. Hence *shall*, rather than *will*, is correctly used in the sentence, *I hope that you and I shall soon meet again*.

3. If the subject consists of two or more nouns or pronouns, differing in *person*, connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with the one next to it; as,

1. He or I *have* made a mistake.

2. Either you or he *is* wrong.

Such expressions, however, are awkward, and they should be avoided. It is better to say:

1. He has made a mistake, or I *have*; or, One of us *has* made a mistake.

2. You are wrong, or he *is*; or, One of you *is* wrong.

4. Study these sentences:

1. He is the *only* one of the five boys that *is* studious.

2. He is only one of the five boys that *are* studious.

In (1), *that* is singular to agree with its antecedent *one*, and it therefore takes the singular verb *is*; in (2), *that* is plural to agree with its antecedent *boys*, and it therefore takes the plural verb *are*.

When the subject is a relative pronoun, the verb takes the same person and number as the antecedent of the relative.

5. Write two sentences illustrating each case mentioned in this lesson.

6. Account for the person and number of each verb in these sentences:

1. Five years in this climate affects one's health.
2. A laggard in love and a dastard in war was to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.
3. The evening and the morning were the first day.
4. Many of the sailors were shipwrecked.
5. Such was the intelligence, the gravity, and the self-command of Cromwell's warriors. — MACAULAY.
6. The omission of unnecessary adjectives adds to clearness.
7. This is the only one of the books that is worth reading.
8. This is one of the best books that have appeared this year.
9. He does n't study.

L. EXERCISE IN CONCORD OF VERB AND SUBJECT

Account for the person and number of each verb in these sentences:

1. The meaning of some of the sentences is doubtful.
2. The committee were discussing the question.
3. The committee is ready to report.
4. A number of these expressions are objectionable.
5. The entire herd was destroyed.
6. At least one fourth of the company were killed or wounded.

7. In the hands of an Indian, the bow and arrow was a dangerous weapon.

8. His hope and ambition was to be a lawyer.

9. The end and aim of his life is to get money.

10. Bread and butter was his favorite food.

11. The jury consists of twelve men.

12. After a long discussion, the jury have agreed upon a verdict.

13. Food, and not advice, is what she needs.

14. Not you, but I am to blame.

15. Part of the crop was destroyed.

16. Part of the horses were lost.

17. How are the number and person of a verb to be determined?

18. The ability or the inclination was wanting.

19. Neither sickness nor poverty embitters his spirit.

20. My life, as well as my material interests, is in your hands.

21. Each of the boys was excused.

22. Neither he nor his relatives were able to pay his debts.

23. Does n't John like to study grammar?

24. How is the health of his children?

25. How are his children?

26. No one except these witnesses knows anything about the case.

27. Each day and each hour increases his distress.

28. Justice or vengeance is sure to overtake the wicked.

29. Every honest man and every true patriot favors the measure.

30. A number of visitors were entertained.
31. The number of inhabitants is small.
32. A wheel and axle forms a part of this machine.
33. Are your scissors sharp?
34. There go two strange men.
35. How many blades has your knife?
36. Yonder are your books.
37. Whose book and slate were lost?
38. Does your watch keep correct time?
39. The omission of two words was noted.
40. "Plutarch's Lives" is a valuable book.
41. A thousand dollars was spent to no purpose.
42. One or two persons in the crowd were insolent.
43. You and I are farmers.
44. He and I shall be neighbors.
45. Neither you nor I should be a bit the wiser.
46. Each of these professions is crowded.
47. Neither of them gives an accurate idea of the occurrence.
48. English and American literature are both taught.
49. My old friend and teacher is here.
50. The rest of the bread was stale.
51. The rest of the pupils were present.
52. Every village, town, and city has a school.

LI. SEQUENCE OF TENSES; PRESENT TENSE FORM IN GENERAL TRUTHS

1. Sometimes the tense of the verb in a dependent clause is determined by the tense of the verb in the principal clause; as,

1. He *says* that he *will* go.
2. He *said* that he *would* go.
3. I *fear* that the bear *will* kill me.
4. I *feared* that the bear *would* kill me.

2. Such verbs as *hope*, *expect*, and *intend*, relate to the *future*, not to the *past*. Hence *all tenses* of these verbs are followed by the *present* infinitive, not by the *perfect*; as,

1. I hope *to go* (not, to have gone).
2. I hoped *to go* (not, to have gone).
3. I had hoped *to go* (not, to have gone).

3. Past tense forms of verbs like *believe*, *fear*, *think*, *expect*, etc., in the *principal clause*, require the so-called past potential form, not the so-called past perfect potential form, of the verb in the subordinate clause; as,

1. I feared that the bear *would kill* me (not, *would have killed* me).

2. I expected every wave *would swallow* us up (not, *would have swallowed* us up).

4. The present infinitive, not the perfect infinitive, should also follow such expressions as *it would have been better*, etc.; as,

It would have been better for you *to leave* at once, not *to have left* at once.

5. The following sentences are both correct. Notice the difference in meaning:

1. I am glad to see you.
2. I am glad to have seen you.

In such cases this is the rule:

If the infinitive refers to the *same time* as the principal verb,

or to time *succeeding that*, the infinitive should be in the present tense; but if the infinitive refers to a time *prior* to that of the principal verb, the infinitive should be in the perfect tense.

The same rule governs the use of the present and the perfect participles; as,

1. He had no intention of *violating the rules*.

2. He had no recollection of *having violated the rules*.

6. The present tense form should be used in the statement of a general truth, or something that is true at all times; as,

1. An ancient philosopher taught that knowledge *is* power (not *was* power).

2. I learned long ago that the sum of two and three *is* five (not *was* five).

7. Copy the following sentences, using in each case the correct one of the forms in the parentheses:

1. He said that he (will, would) come soon.

2. They expected (to stay, to have stayed) a week.

3. He says that he (will, would) come if he (can, could).

4. I could have allowed them (to break, to have broken) their promise about a matter of smaller importance.

5. They thought that they would (be, have been) drowned if they did not hasten to the shore.

6. They think they would (be, have been) drowned if they had not hastened to the shore.

7. He seems to (be, have been) prosperous in business.

8. I gave him one dollar when I left, intending to (give, have given) him another when I returned.

9. I expected him to (do, have done) better.

10. I have always thought that dew (fell, falls).

11. He proved that the earth (is, was) round.
12. He told me that every twinkling star (was, is) a sun.
13. I hoped every minute to (see, have seen) you.
14. I did not know that flowers (grow, grew, will grow) under the snow.
15. I found out by experience that white clothing (is, was) cooler than black.
16. He proved that heat (radiated, radiates, will radiate) better from a rough surface.
17. I am thankful to (see, have seen) this great work of art.
18. He would have done more wisely to (leave, have left) them at once.
19. I am not conscious of (mistreating, having mistreated) them.
20. I remember (seeing, having seen) Niagara Falls when I was a mere child.
21. I doubt his (being, having been) entirely frank with you.
22. Some people never forget (receiving, having received) a favor.

LII. IMPERATIVE MODE FORMS AND USES

1. The subject of an imperative verb is usually omitted; as,
Be silent = Be (thou, you, ye) silent.
2. The subject of an imperative verb is usually a pronoun in the second person; see example under 1.
3. The verb *let* is often used in imperative expressions; as,
Let me go = Let (thou or you) me (to) go = Permit (you) me to go.

Note that *thou* or *you*, understood, is the subject of *let*, and that *me go* is the object of *let* or *permit*.

4. Sometimes we find a sentence in which a verb in the imperative mode has a subject in the third person; as,

Come one, come all.

Some authors explain this as meaning, Let one come, let all come. This is true as to the meaning, but it does not remove the difficulty. If we go a step further, and say the sentence means, Let (you) one come, let (you) all come, we then have difficulty in finding whom *you* represents. Did the author of the sentence, *Come one, come all*, address it to some person or persons, *you*, whom he asked to allow one and all to come?

When God said, "Let there be light," did He mean, Let (you or thou) be light?

Thou or *you* represents the person spoken to; who was spoken to in either of these cases?

It seems better to say that an imperative verb may have a subject in the third person.

5. Sometimes we find a sentence in which a verb in the imperative mode has a subject in the first person; as,

Sing we to our God above.

This is explained in various ways by different authors. All agree that the sentence means the same as, Let us sing to our God above; but this does not change the fact that *we*, in the first person, is used as the subject of an imperative verb.

Some say that *we* = *you* and *I*, or *you* and *we*, and that the *you* included in the *we* justifies the use of *we* with the imperative. It seems better, however, to say simply that a verb in the imperative mode may take a subject in the first or third person.

If preferable, this usage may be called anomalous or idiomatic; it *is rare*.

6. Point out the imperative verbs in these sentences and state what is the subject of each:

1. Go thou and do likewise.
2. Let there be light.
3. Fellow-citizens, hear.
4. Ruin seize thee, ruthless king.—GRAY.
5. Laugh those who may, weep those who must.—SCOTT.
6. Be it resolved.
7. Somebody call my wife.—SHAKESPEARE.
8. Hallowed be thy name.
9. Proceed we therefore to our subject.—POPE.
10. Lend me your pencil, if you please.

Note that a verb in the imperative mode takes the *name form*, without reference to the number or person of the subject.

LIII. SUBJUNCTIVE MODE FORMS AND USES

(Read again Lessons LXVII and LXVIII, Part Two.)

1. These two facts are worthy of careful attention:

a. In a clause denoting doubt, condition, or purpose, any subject may take a verb in the *name form*.

b. In a clause implying denial, the *past form* of the verb should always be used, and *were* (or *wert*) is the only form of the verb *be* that may be used.

2. The subjunctive verb is usually, but not always, preceded by a conjunction denoting doubt, uncertainty, etc.; as,

1. *If* I were he, I should act differently.

2. Were I he, I should act differently.

3. It is important to distinguish the clause of concession from the clause of condition, and also from the clause implying denial. Study these examples:

1. If it *is* true, you need not tell it.

2. If that *be* true, you shall not suffer.

3. If the earth *were* flat, men could not sail around it.

The first concedes a fact, and the verb has the regular indicative form; the second expresses doubt or uncertainty, and the verb takes the *name form* (subjunctive); in the third a denial is implied, and the verb takes the *past form* (subjunctive) *were*, although the subject *earth* is singular and the reference is not to past time.

4. Many subjunctive verb forms are the same as indicative forms; others are identical with potential forms. Hence they may be distinguished, not by form, but by *meaning*. The subjunctive mode is used, not in statements of facts or inquiries for facts, but to *express a mere assumption, or something only conceived of in the mind*.

In addition to the uses of the subjunctive already considered, some special uses may now be studied, viz.:

a. In an independent proposition based upon an unexpressed, but implied, condition; as,

It *would be* my desire to spend the winters in the South and the summers in the North.

Note (1) that there is here implied some such condition as *if I were permitted to choose*; (2) that the form of this subjunctive verb is the same as one potential form.

b. In a principal clause to state a consequence as doubtful or

as not true because contingent upon a condition regarded as uncertain or denied by implication; as,

1. If he should study, *he would be promoted*.
2. If he had studied, he *would now be* in the next grade.

Note that here again the subjunctive can be distinguished from the potential, not by form, but *by meaning*.

c. In an adverb clause to denote a possible or conceivable, but not actual, result; as,

So live, that when thy summons comes, . . . thou *go* not like the quarry-slave at night. — BRYANT.

d. In an adverb clause, to denote purpose; as,

Make no friendship with an angry man . . . lest thou *learn* his ways. — THE BIBLE.

e. In an adverb clause, to denote time; as,

Let it rise, till it *meet* the sun in his coming. — WEBSTER.

f. In a noun clause expressing an indirect question; as,

Ask the great man if there *be* none greater. — EMERSON.

g. In a noun clause expressing a wish; as,

I wish that he *were* here.

Note that this clause implies denial.

h. In a noun clause to express a verdict, a decree, a recommendation, etc.; as,

1. We recommend that he *do* receive a certificate.
2. The sentence is that he *be* hung.
3. The committee recommends that the bill *pass* (or *do pass*).

The foregoing cases illustrate only a few of the many uses of the subjunctive.

5. In the following sentences, point out the verbs in the indica-

tive mode and those in the subjunctive mode and explain the use of each:

1. If it rain to-morrow, the trip will be abandoned.
2. If he is poor, he is honest.
3. If he were poor, I should try to help him.
4. Though the price seems high, it is not.
5. If the price seem high, investigate before you buy.
6. I wish that I were a musician.
7. Take heed lest thou fall.
8. He should be careful lest he fall.
9. If there were no light, there would be no colors.
10. Were I willing to go, I could not.
11. He will be killed unless he surrender.
12. Oh, that he were here now.
13. It were well it were done quickly.
14. Though an angel from heaven command it, we should not steal.
15. If the weather be good, he will come.
16. If he is here most of the time, this is not his home.
17. Rise up, before it be too late. — HAWTHORNE.
18. He were no lion, were not Romans hinds. — SHAKESPEARE.
19. So many thoughts move to and fro, that vain it were her eyes to close. — COLERIDGE.
20. The voice, if he speak to you, is of similar physiognomy, clear, melodious, and sonorous. — CARLYLE.
21. If, in our case, the representative system fail, popular government must be pronounced impossible. — WEBSTER.
22. But in no case could it be justified, except it be for a

failure of the association or union to effect the object for which it was created. —CALHOUN.

23. It were better for him that a millstone were hanged about his neck, and he were cast into the sea, than that he should offend one of these little ones.

LIV. SOME SPECIAL USES OF PRONOUNS

1. The possessive forms *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *her*, *their*, and sometimes *his* and *its* are regularly placed immediately before nouns, which they modify; as, *my* book, *our* home, etc.

2. The possessive forms *mine*, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, and sometimes *his* and *its* stand apart from, and take the place of, the nouns modified; as,

That book is *mine*.

The peculiarity about these words is that, while they are classed as possessive forms, they are regularly used in nominative and objective case relations, and very rarely as possessive modifiers, in modern English.

3. The compound personal pronouns should ordinarily be used only reflexively or for emphasis. See 4, Lesson XXXIII, Part Two.

a. The use of one of these pronouns as the object of a verb or a preposition, to denote the same person or thing as the subject, is called the *reflexive* use; as,

1. He blames *himself* for this misfortune.

2. He brought this misfortune upon *himself*.

b. The use of one of these pronouns in apposition with a noun or another pronoun, is called the *emphatic* use; as,

1. John *himself* can answer.

2. He *himself* can answer.

4. In rare instances a good author uses a compound pronoun as an equivalent of a simple pronoun; as,

Victories that neither myself nor my cause always deserved.

—FRANKLIN.

It is easy to suppose that modesty in this case influenced the author to substitute *myself* for *I*.

But in vulgar English we often hear such sentences as this:

They invited Mary and myself to dine with them.

In this case, it is easy to suspect that the author did not know whether to use the objective *me* or the nominative *I*, and substituted *myself*, which has the same form in both cases. Such use of the compound forms is to be avoided.

5. The simple pronoun is sometimes used instead of the compound as an indirect (dative) object; as,

I bought *me* a horse; for, I bought myself a horse = I bought a horse for myself.

Rarely a simple pronoun is used reflexively as direct object; as,

Now I lay *me* down to sleep.

6. The pronoun *it* is variously used:

1. To represent a singular object without sex; as,

He found his book but lost *it* again.

This may be called the characteristic use of *it*.

2. As an expletive, or anticipative subject, to throw the real subject after the verb; as,

It is their misfortune that young people do not value time more highly.

3. As the subject of an impersonal verb; as,

It rained steadily for two hours.

4. As the object of an intransitive verb; as,

Come trip *it* as ye go,
On the light fantastic toe.

5. As the object of a preposition in an indefinite phrase; as,

Poor Christian was hard put *to it*. BUNYAN.

6. To refer to a preceding group of words, or to the idea or fact stated therein; as,

He had been ill a week, but his brother did not know *it*.

7. Copy or compose sentences illustrating the different uses of each pronoun mentioned in this lesson.

LV. SOME SPECIAL USES OF PRONOUNS (CONTINUED)

1. The words most frequently used as relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. After such words as *such*, *much*, *many*, *same*, etc., *as* is sometimes used as a relative. *But* is occasionally used as a negative relative, equivalent to *that—not*, as in this sentence, There is no fireside *but* has one vacant chair.

2. The pronouns formed by adding *so*, *ever*, or *so ever*, to *who*, *which*, or *what*, are called compound relatives.

3. Relative pronouns perform the offices of both substantives and connectives; hence they are often properly called *conjunctive pronouns*.

4. A relative pronoun often introduces an adjective clause modifying the antecedent of the relative. This fact has led some authors to define a relative pronoun as, "A pronoun used to represent a preceding word, phrase, or clause, called its antecedent,

to which it joins a subordinate proposition." In fact, however, a relative pronoun often has no "antecedent," either expressed or understood. This is almost always true of *what*, and the compound relatives, as in these examples:

He got *what* he wanted.

It is also true that *who*, *which*, *what*, and the compound relatives often introduce *noun clauses*; as,

1. I do not know *who got the book*.

2. I shall vote for *whoever is nominated*.

Note that in 1, the object of *know* is *who got the book*, and *who* is the subject of *got*. In 2, the object of *for* is *whoever is nominated*, and *whoever* is the subject of *is nominated*.

5. Those who try to make *what* and the compound relatives conform in office to the definition quoted under 4, say that *what*, for example, is equivalent to *the thing which*; as,

He got *what* (i.e., *the thing which*) he wanted.

This is true. It is also true that *thing* is the antecedent, and that *which* is a relative conforming in office to the definition quoted, but it is *which*, and not *what*, that conforms to that definition.

Again, they say that *thing*, the antecedent part of *what*, is the object of *got*; and that *which*, the relative part, is the object of *wanted*. Then, is *what* the object of *got*, or of *wanted*, or of both?

Let us go one step farther. The same authors say that (2) means: I shall vote for *any man who* is nominated. True; but here *man* is the object of *for*, and *who* is the subject of *is nominated*. If *whoever* fills both these offices, should it have the nominative or the objective form? How are we to know that

whoever, rather than *whomever*, is correct? For correct explanation, see Note, (2), above.

In the following sentence, *whomever* is correct: I shall vote for *whomever* they nominate. Here, *whomever* is the object of *nominate*. This sentence, taken with those above, shows that the compound relative takes its case form from its relation to other words in *its own clause*. This is true of all relatives.

6. Classify the italicized pronouns in these sentences, and explain the case and the use of each:

1. He has bought *him* a horse.
2. *It* is now too late.
3. That letter of *his* caused all the trouble.
4. He brought this trouble upon *himself*.
5. I shall welcome *whoever* is sent.
6. I shall welcome *whomever* they send.
7. *Whoever* studies will learn.
8. *Whoso* keepeth the law is a wise son.
9. *Whatever* is, is right.
10. Kind people avoid doing *whatever* will wound the feelings of others.
11. Such *as* obey the law will be protected.
12. I do not know *who* is in the garden.
13. I do not know *whom* he meant.
14. *It* is an ill wind *that* blows nobody good.
15. The great globe *itself* shall dissolve.
16. *It* behooved him to keep on good terms with them.
17. If he can not fulfil his promise, he should confess *it*.
18. I made up my mind to foot *it*. HAWTHORNE.

19. I set *me* down and sighed. — BURNS.
 20. And millions in those solitudes have laid *them* down in their last sleep. — BRYANT.
 21. He offers *himself* as a candidate.
 22. I know *whose* book it is.
 23. It is *theirs*.
7. Analyze the sentences given under 6.

LVI. SPECIMEN WORDS VARIOUSLY USED

1. There are many English words that are freely used as different parts of speech. A few of these may be studied here:

1. *As* is perhaps most frequently used as a subordinate conjunction. In this office it may introduce:

- (a) A clause denoting degree; as,
Washington was as good *as* he was great.
- (b) A clause of manner; as,
The upright man speaks *as* he thinks.
- (c) A reason clause; as,
It rained last night, *as* the ground is wet to-day.
- (d) A cause clause; as,
The ground is wet to-day, *as* it rained last night.

2. *As* may be used as an introductory word:

- (a) To introduce an appositive; as,
He joined the army *as* captain.
- (b) To introduce an objective complement; as,
We should consider time *as* a sacred trust.

3. *As* may be used to introduce an independent clause used parenthetically in the idiom *as it were*; as,

The ship leaped, *as* it were, from billow to billow.

4. *But* is chiefly used as a coördinate conjunction:

(a) Generally as an adversative; as,

John left, *but* James remained.

(b) Not infrequently as a copulative; as,

Not only John, *but* James, left.

5. *But* is occasionally used as a subordinate conjunction:

(a) As the equivalent of *that*—*not*, in an adverb clause;

as,

Nor is nature so hard *but* she gives me this joy
several times. EMERSON.

(b) As the equivalent of *that*—*not*, in a substantive
clause; as,

The rich do not know *but* they may sometime
want bread.

6. *But* is often used as a preposition in the meaning of *except*; as,

There was no one here *but*¹ him.

7. *But* is sometimes used after a negative as a negative
relative, meaning *that*—*not*; as,

There is not a man here *but* believes you innocent.

¹ NOTE: Some grammarians claim that in this case *but* should be treated as a conjunction, and should therefore be followed by *he*, not *him*. Sill quotes many examples from the writings of standard authors to sustain this position; as,

"No Grecian prince but I." POPE.

"Thus she and none but she." DRYDEN.

"That none but *he* can wield." MACAULAY.

"No one knew but I." DICKENS.

"This none must know but *thou*." BRYANT.

Most modern grammarians, however, hold that *but* is here used in the sense of the preposition *except*.

8. *But* is often used as an adverb in the sense of *only*; as,

(1) We can *but* fail.

(2) I saw *but* two men.

9. *Like* is often used as a verb; as,

Like me no longer, then—love me instead.—CHARLOTTE BRONTE.

10. *Like* is used as an adjective; as,

The company was made up of men of like tastes and pursuits.

11. *Like* is sometimes used as a conjunctive adverb in a clause of manner when the verb in the clause is omitted; as,

1. *Like* one in prayer I stood.—LONGFELLOW.

2. Be strong, and quit yourselves *like* men.—THE BIBLE.

NOTE: When the omitted verb is supplied, *as* takes the place of *like*; as,

I stood *as* one in prayer stands.

12. *Like* in the sense of *as if* is used as a conjunction by Shakespeare and some modern writers; as,

1. But, *like* in sickness, did I loathe this food.

—SHAKESPEARE.

2. He limped *like* he had been hurt.

NOTE: This usage is condemned by the best authors.

13. *That* is often used as an adjective; as,

He never forgot *that* lesson.

14. *That* is often used as an adjective pronoun; as,

And when Moses heard *that*, he was content.—THE BIBLE.

15. *That* is sometimes used in the sense of *what* or *that which*; as,

We speak *that* we do know, and testify *that* we have seen.

—THE BIBLE.

16. *That*, followed by *of*, is frequently used to avoid the repetition of a preceding substantive; as,

I would desire my female readers to consider that, as the term of life is short, *that of* beauty is much shorter.—ADDISON.

17. *That*, preceded by *and*, is sometimes used to avoid the repetition of a preceding statement; as,

God shall help her, *and that* right early.—THE BIBLE.

18. *That* is often a relative pronoun; as,

Laws *that* are unjust should be repeated.

19. *That* is sometimes used as an adverb of degree; as,

I owe *that* much to what, at least, I was.—BROWNING.

20. *That* is used as a conjunction:

(a) In a purpose clause; as,

The State provides free schools, *that* her citizens may be educated.

(b) In a result clause; as,

His disposition was so disagreeable *that* no one desired to associate with him.

21. *That* is often used to introduce a substantive clause; as,

We wish *that* labor may look up here and be proud in the midst of its toil.—WEBSTER.

22. *What* is often used as a relative pronoun; as,

Tell me *what* you know.

23. *What* may be used as an interrogative pronoun; as,

What can restrain the agony of a mother's heart?—IRVING.

24. *What* may be used as an adjective; as,

Now a merchant may wear *what* boots he pleases. THACKERAY.

25. *What* is sometimes used as an adverb; as,

For, *what* shall it profit a man, if he shall gain the whole world, and lose his own soul? THE BIBLE.

26. *What* is used as an interjection; as,

What! is he dead?

27. *What*—*what*, in the sense of *partly*—*partly*, is used, though rarely; as,

What with her family cares and *what* with her social duties, —her time is fully occupied.

2. Copy or compose sentences illustrating the various cases of each word considered in this lesson.

LVII. SYNTACTICAL IDIOMS AND ANOMALIES

1. *An idiom* may be briefly defined as *a current deviation or departure from the strict syntactical rules or usage of language*.

Notice this sentence from the Bible: "Paul, thou art *beside thyself*; much learning doth make thee mad." This is good English, but it is idiomatic. The expression *beside thyself* is in form a prepositional phrase, but if we construe it as such, giving *beside* its usual meaning, *at the side of*, it conveys no meaning, or an impossible meaning; for we can not think of one as being *at the side of himself*. The first member of the sentence quoted evidently means this: Paul, thou art demented.

In analysis and in parsing, *beside thyself* should be treated as a subjective adjective complement, and not as a phrase separable

into a preposition and its object. Another idiomatic expression of similar form and like meaning appears in this sentence: The man is *out of his head*. Here, *out of his head* means simply *delirious* and should be so construed in parsing and in analysis.

2. Webster says an anomaly is a "deviation from the common rule; irregularity; thus *oxen*, the plural of *ox*, is an anomaly in grammar as the regular plural would be *oxes*." Speaking more specifically, *oxen* is an *etymological anomaly* in modern English. In good English, however, we find many *syntactical anomalies*. Anomalies in *etymology* give but little trouble to any one, for they are accepted and treated as *anomalies*. But some grammarians waste time and effort in trying to explain how *anomalies* in *syntax* may be accounted for under regular rules. For example, take this sentence:

It was to him that I spoke.

The difficulty here is to account for the construction of the objective case form *him* and for the construction of *that*. Some say the sentence means this: *It* (that is, the person) that I spoke to was him (he) = The person to whom I spoke was him (he). They explain this construction by saying that the predicate nominative *he*, when placed immediately after the preposition *to*, is *attracted* into the objective case, and hence they say that *him* is *in the objective case by attraction*.

Others explain thus:

It was to him that I spoke = *It (that is, that I spoke) was to him* = *It (that is, my speaking) was to him*.

These explanations are more ingenious than satisfactory. It seems better to say simply that such expressions are anomalous. We find them in good literature. We understand them. Yet they are not in accord with our general rules of syntax. They are syntactical anomalies.

3. Point out the idiomatic and anomalous constructions in the following sentences:

1. He was given a present.
2. I had as lief go as stay.
3. You had better wear your coat.
4. The ship leaped, as it were, from billow to billow.
5. I am going to start to New York next Monday.
6. John was in the house by himself.
7. Wheat is selling at a dollar a bushel.
8. He has water to drink.
9. I shall try to get on with this.
10. The less you have to do with contentious people the better.
11. That has been done away with.
12. He stood out to the last.
13. He danced his feet tired.
14. She worked her fingers to the bone.
15. He seems better than usual.
16. We saw a great many people.
17. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.
18. Trip it lightly.
19. He may be rich but I do not think so.
20. It was there that I saw him.
21. She wept all night long.
22. He is to pay me a dollar.
23. He was about to start to Europe.
24. Such fellows are taken no notice of by us.
25. This man was given to understand that he must go.

26. He was told by me to go.
27. I had rather die than do it.
28. He was such a simpleton as to believe the story.
29. We know what is doing there.
30. I soon came to know him better.
31. He had been to hear a concert.
32. I can not but think he will come.
33. It came to pass.

NOTES: 1. See Lesson XXVI, 4.

2. The thought is this: I should as willingly go as stay, and this sentence is regular in syntax. But the idiom *to have as lief* = *to regard as equally good*, and the past (subjunctive) *had as lief* = *should regard as equally good*. Hence the idiomatic sentence *I had as lief go as stay* = *I should regard to go and to stay as equally good* = *I should regard going and staying as equally good*. In the same way we find that *I had rather go than stay* = *I should regard going a better thing than staying*.

But in regular syntax the thought is thus expressed:

I should rather go than stay.

3. The idiom *to have better* = *to hold, regard, or consider as better*. Hence the past (subjunctive) *had better* = *should regard as better*. The idiomatic sentence, *You had better wear your coat* = *You should regard it as better to wear your coat*. In regular syntax the thought is thus expressed: You would better wear your coat.

5. An idiomatic form of future tense.
6. *By himself* = *alone*, used as a subjective adjective complement.
7. The verb is the active in form, but passive in meaning.
8. The active form of the infinitive here has a passive meaning.
13. *Tired* is an objective adjective supplement.
14. *To the bone* has the same construction here as *tired* in 13.

15. Here *usual* = he usually does.

16 and 17. Such combinations of words as *a great many* and *full many a* should not be broken up in parsing.

19. Here *so* = *he is*. In, *You may be right but I do not think so, so = you are*.

20. This sentence means this: I saw him there.

21. *All night* modifies the adverb *long*.

22. *Is to pay* denotes future time.

23. *About* is not a preposition, but an adverb of time modifying the subjective complement *to start*, etc.

27. See 2.

29. *Is doing* has a passive meaning.

30. *Came* = *became*.

31. *Been* = *gone*.

APPENDIX A

SUGGESTIVE FORMS OF ANALYSIS

1. There are no spring violets in these woods.

This is a simple declarative sentence, of which *no spring violets* is the subject, and *are in these woods* is the predicate. *There* is an expletive. The simple subject is the noun *violets*, modified by the adjectives *no* and *spring*. The simple predicate is the verb *are*, completed by the adjectival prepositional phrase *in these woods*, used as a subjective complement. The noun *woods* is modified by the adjective *these*.

2. At the foot of yonder nodding beech, His listless length at noontide would he stretch.

This is a simple declarative sentence, of which the subject is the pronoun *he*, and the predicate is *at noontide would stretch his listless length at the foot of yonder nodding beech*. The predicate verb is the verb phrase *would stretch*, completed by the direct object *length* and modified by the adverbial prepositional phrases *at noontide* and *at the foot of yonder nodding beech*. The base word of the latter phrase is the noun *foot*, modified by the adjective (article) *the* and the adjectival prepositional phrase *of yonder nodding beech*. Of this last phrase the base word is the noun *beech* modified by the adjectives *yonder* and *nodding*. The object noun *length* is modified by the possessive pronoun *his* and the adjective *listless*.

3. It is of no consequence what the ignorant think of grammar.

This is a complex declarative sentence, of which the subject is the noun clause *what the ignorant think of grammar*, and the predicate is *is of no consequence*. *It* is an expletive, or introductory word, or anticipative subject, used to throw the real subject after the predicate. The simple subject is the noun clause *what the ignorant think of grammar*. The predicate verb is *is*, completed by the adjectival prepositional phrase *of no consequence*. The subject of the noun clause is *the ignorant*, and the predicate is *think what of grammar*. The base word of the subject is the noun *ignorant*, modified by the adjective *the*. The base word of the predicate is the verb *think*, completed by the object *what*, and modified by the adverbial prepositional phrase *of grammar*.

4. Each shrub and tree is eloquent of him;

For tongueless things and silence have their speech.

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of two members which are connected by the causal coördinate conjunction *for*. The subject of the first member is *Each shrub and tree*, and the predicate is *is eloquent of him*. The base words of the compound subject are the nouns *shrub* and *tree*, connected by the copulative coördinate conjunction *and*, and modified by the adjective *Each*. *Is* is the predicate verb, completed by the subjective adjective complement *eloquent*, modified by the adverbial prepositional phrase *of him*. *Tongueless things and silence* is the compound subject of the second member, and *have their speech* is the predicate. The principal words of the subject are the nouns *things* and *silence*, connected by the copulative coördinate conjunction *and*. *Things* is modified by the adjective *tongueless*. The predicate verb is *have*, completed by the

object noun *speech*, which is modified by the possessive pronoun *their*.

5. As I crossed the bridge over the Avon on my return, I paused to contemplate the distant church in which the poet lies buried.

This is a complex declarative sentence, of which the subject is the second *I*, and the predicate, the rest of the sentence. The predicate verb is *paused*, modified by the adverbial clause *as I crossed the bridge over the Avon on my return*, and by the adverbial infinitive phrase *to contemplate the distant church in which the poet lies buried*. The subject of the adverbial clause is *I*, and the predicate is *crossed the bridge over the Avon on my return*. The verb is *crossed*, completed by the object *bridge*, and modified by the adverbial prepositional phrase *on my return*. *Bridge* is modified by the adjectival prepositional phrase *over the Avon*. This adverbial clause is connected with the verb *paused* by the conjunctive adverb *as*, and is an adverbial clause of time. The infinitive *to contemplate* is the base word of the adverbial infinitive phrase *to contemplate the distant church in which the poet lies buried*. *Church* is the direct object of this infinitive, and is modified by the adjectives *the* and *distant*, and the restrictive adjective clause *in which the poet lies buried*. The subject of this clause is *the poet*, and the predicate is *lies buried in which*. *Poet*, the subject noun, is modified by the adjective *the*. The predicate verb is *lies*, completed by the participle *buried* used as a subjective complement, and modified by the adverbial prepositional phrase *in which*. This adjective clause is connected with the noun *church*, which it modifies, by the relative pronoun *which*.

6. These people always elected some nobleman king.

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *These people*, and the predicate is *always elected some nobleman king*.

The subject noun is *people*, modified by the adjective *these*. The predicate verb is *elected*, completed by the direct object *nobleman*, and the objective noun supplement *king*, and modified by the adverb *always*. The noun *nobleman* is modified by the adjective *some*.

7. That was the grandest funeral
That ever passed on earth;
But no man heard the tramping
Or saw the train go forth.

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of two members connected by the adversative conjunction *but*. The first member is complex; the second is simple, with a compound predicate. *That* is the subject of the first member, and *was the grandest funeral that ever passed on earth* is the predicate. *Was*, the predicate verb, is completed by the subjective noun complement *funeral*, which is modified by the adjectives *the* and *grandest*, and by the restrictive adjective clause *that ever passed on earth*. Of this clause the subject is *that* and the predicate is *ever passed on earth*. *Passed* is the predicate verb, modified by the adverb *ever* and the adverbial prepositional phrase *on earth*. This adjective clause is connected with the noun *funeral*, which it modifies, by the relative pronoun *that*. *No man* is the subject of the second member, and *heard the tramping or saw the train go forth* is the predicate. *Man*, the subject noun, is modified by the adjective *no*. The verbs *heard* and *saw*, connected by the alternative coördinate conjunction *or*, form the compound predicate. *Heard* is completed by the direct object *tramping*, modified by the adjective *the*. *Saw* is completed by the direct object, the substantive infinitive phrase *the train go forth*. Of this phrase the base word is the infinitive *go*, which has for its assumed subject the noun *train*, and which is modified by the adverb *forth*. The noun *train* is modified by the adjective *the*.

APPENDIX B

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Awake	awoke, r. ¹	awoke, r.
Be, or am	was	been
Bear (bring forth)	bore (<i>bare</i>) ²	born (<i>borne</i>)
Bear (carry)	bore (<i>bare</i>)	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, r.	bent, r.
Bereave	bereft, r.	bereft, r.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bet	bet, r.	bet, r.
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blend	blent, r.	blent, r.
Bless	blest, r.	blest, r.
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke (<i>brake</i>)	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built, r.	built, r.
Burn	burnt, r.	burnt, r.
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught	caught
Chide	chid	chidden, chid

¹ The *r* means that the verb has also a regular form.

² Forms in italics are obsolete or obsolescent.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave (adhere)	(<i>clave</i>), r.	cleaved
Cleave (split)	cleft	cleft
	(<i>clove</i>) (<i>clave</i>)	cloven, r.
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, r.	clad, r.
(Be)come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, r.	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare (venture)	durst, r.	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt
Dig	dug, r.	dug, r.
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt, r.	dreamt, r.
Dress	drest, r.	drest, r.
Drink	drank	drunk (<i>drank</i>)
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt, r.	dwelt, r.
Eat	ate	eaten
(Be)fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Freeze	froze	frozen
(For)get	got	got, gotten
Gild	gilt, r.	gilt, r.
Gird	girt, r.	girt, r.
(For)give	gave	given

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Go	went ¹	gone
(En)grave	graved	graven, r.
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung, r.	hung, r. ²
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, r.	(hove), r.
Hew	hewed	hewn, r.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
(Be)hold	held	held (holden)
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, r.	knelt, r.
Knit	knit, r.	knit, r.
Know	knew	known
Lade (load)	laded	laden, r.
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Lean	leant, r.	leant, r.
Leap	leapt, r.	leapt, r.
Learn	learnt, r.	learnt, r.
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie (recline)	lay	lain
Light	lit, r.	lit, r.
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, r.
Pay	paid	paid
Pen (inclose)	pent, r.	pent, r.

¹ *Went* is the past of *wend*, to go.

² *Hang*, to execute by hanging, is regular.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, r.	quit, r.
Rap	rapt, r.	rapt, r.
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	ridden
Ring	rang (<i>rung</i>)	rung
(A)rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven, r.
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, r.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	(<i>sod</i>) r.	sodden, r.
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
(Be)set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shapen, r.
Shave	shaved	shaven, r.
Shear	(<i>shore</i>), r.	shorn, r.
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, r.	shone, r.
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, r.
Shred	shred	shred
Shrink	shrank (<i>shrunk</i>)	shrunk shrunk
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang (<i>sung</i>)	sung
Sink	sank (<i>sunk</i>)	sunk (<i>sunken</i>)
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Slide	alid	alidden, slid
Sling	alung (<i>slang</i>)	alung
Slink	alunk	alunk
Slit	alit, r.	alit, r.
Smell	smelt, r.	smelt, r.
Smite	smote	smitten, (<i>smit</i>)
Sow	sowed	sown, r.
Speak	spoke (<i>spake</i>)	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt, r.	spelt, r.
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, r.	spilt
Spin	spun (<i>span</i>)	spun
Spit	spit (<i>spat</i>)	spit (<i>spitten</i>)
Split	split	split
Spoil	spoilt, r.	spoilt, r.
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprang (<i>sprung</i>)	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Stave	stove, r.	stove, r.
Stay	staid, r.	staid, r.
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk (<i>stank</i>)	stunk
Strew	strewed	strewn, r.
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strow	strowed	strown, r.
Swear	swore (<i>sware</i>)	sworn
Sweat	sweat, r.	sweat, r.
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, r.
Swim	swam (<i>swum</i>)	swum
Swing	swung	swung

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore (<i>tare</i>)	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve, r.	thriven, r.
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Wake	woke, r.	woke, r.
Wax	waxed	(<i>waxed</i>), r.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, r.	wet, r.
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	wrought, r.	wrought, r.
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written

DEFECTIVE VERBS

Beware	—	—
Can	could	—
Do (auxiliary)	did	—
Have (auxiliary)	had	—
May	might	—
Must	must	—
Ought	ought	—
—	quoth	—
Shall	should	—
Will (auxiliary)	would	—

APPENDIX C

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE*

Conjugation is the orderly arrangement of the forms of a verb with reference to voice, mode, tense, number, and person.

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
<i>Principal Parts:</i>	be	was	being	been

INDICATIVE MODE

Singular

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Perf.</i>	<i>Future</i>	<i>Future Perf.</i>
1. I am		have been	was	had been	shall be	shall have been
2. { Thou art		hast been	wast	hadst been	wilt be	wilt have been
{ You are		have been	were	had been	will be	will have been
3. He is		has been	was	had been	will be	will have been

Plural

1. We are	have been	were	had been	shall be	shall have been
2. Ye, <i>or</i> you, are	have been	were	had been	will be	will have been
3. They are	have been	were	had been	will be	will have been

POTENTIAL MODE

Singular

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Present Perfect</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Perfect</i>
1. I may be		may have been	might be	might have been
2. { Thou mayst be		mayst have been	mightst be	mightst have been
{ You may be		may have been	might be	might have been
3. He may be		may have been	might be	might have been

Plural

1. We may be	may have been	might be	might have been
2. Ye, <i>or</i> you, may be	may have been	might be	might have been
3. They may be	may have been	might be	might have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

(Generally used after *if, that, though, etc.*)

<i>Present Tense</i>		<i>Past Tense</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I be	We be	1. I were	We were
2. Thou be	You be	2. Thou wert	You were
3. He be	They be	3. We were	They were

<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have been	We have been
2. Thou have been	You have been
3. He have been	They have been

<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I had been	We had been
2. Thou hadst been	You had been
3. He had been	They had been

<i>Future Tense</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I {should would} be	We {should would} be
2. Thou {shouldst wouldst} be	You {should would} be
3. He {should would} be	They {should would} be

<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I {should would} have been	We {should would} have been
2. Thou {shouldst wouldst} have been	You {should would} have been
3. He {should would} have been	They {should would} have been

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present Tense

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
2. Be (thou)	Be (you or ye)

VERBALS—INFINITIVES

*Present Tense**Present Perfect Tense*

to be

to have been

VERBALS—PARTICIPLES

*Present**Past**Perfect*

being

been

having been

1. For list of tense signs in potential mode, see Lesson LVIII, Part Two, paragraphs 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

2. *Thou* and the verb forms that go with it, and the ending *eth*, occur frequently in the Bible; but in modern English their use is almost entirely limited to poetry and prayers.

3. *You* is considered *plural* because it always takes a plural verb; but as a substantive it represents either one person or thing or more than one. For example, we say *You are*, whether we mean one or more than one by *you*.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *KNOW*

		<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
<i>Principal parts:</i>		know	knew	known
<i>Name Form</i>	<i>S-Form</i>	<i>Past Form</i>	<i>Present Participle</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
know	knows	knew	knowing	known

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I know	We know
2. Thou knowest	You know
3. He { knows { knoweth	They know

Present Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I am known	We are known
2. Thou art known	You are known
3. He is known	They are known

Present Perfect Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have known	We have known
2. Thou hast known	You have known
3. He { ^{hath} has } known	They have known

Present Perfect Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have been known	We have been known
2. Thou hast been known	You have been known
3. He { ^{hath} has } been known	They have been known

Past Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I knew	We knew
2. Thou knewest	You knew
3. He knew	They knew

Past Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I was known	We were known
2. Thou wast known	You were known
3. He was known	They were known

Past Perfect Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I had known	We had known
2. Thou hadst known	You had known
3. He had known	They had known

*Past Perfect Tense—Passive Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I had been known | We had been known |
| 2. Thou hadst been known | You had been known |
| 3. He had been known | They had been known |

*Future Tense—Active Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I {shall
will} know | We {shall
will} know |
| 2. Thou {wilt
shalt} know | You {will
shall} know |
| 3. He {will
shall} know | They {will
shall} know |

*Future Tense—Passive Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I {shall
will} be known | We {shall
will} be known |
| 2. Thou {wilt
shalt} be known | You {will
shall} be known |
| 3. He {will
shall} be known | They {will
shall} be known |

*Future Perfect Tense—Active Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I {shall
will} have known | We {shall
will} have known |
| 2. Thou {wilt
shalt} have known | You {will
shall} have known |
| 3. He {will
shall} have known | They {will
shall} have known |

*Future Perfect Tense—Passive Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1. I {shall
will} have been known | We {shall
will} have been known |
| 2. Thou {wilt
shalt} have been known | You {will
shall} have been known |
| 3. He {will
shall} have been known | They {will
shall} have been known |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

(Generally used after *if, though, lest, unless, etc.*)*Present Tense—Active Voice*

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I know	We know
2. Thou know	You know
3. He know	They know

Present Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I be known	We be known
2. Thou be known	You be known
3. He be known	They be known

Present Perfect Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have known	We have known
2. Thou have known	You have known
3. He have known	They have known

Present Perfect Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have been known	We have been known
2. Thou have been known	You have been known
3. He have been known	They have been known

Past Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I knew	We knew
2. Thou knew	You knew
3. He knew	They knew

Past Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I were known	We were known
2. Thou wert known	You were known
3. He were known	They were known

*Past Perfect Tense—Active Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------|
| 1. I had known | We had known |
| 2. Thou hadst known | You had known |
| 3. He had known | They had known |

*Past Perfect Tense—Passive Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I had been known | We had been known |
| 2. Thou hadst been known | You had been known |
| 3. He had been known | They had been known |

*Future Tense—Active Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I should know | We should know |
| 2. Thou wouldst know | You would know |
| 3. He would know | They would know |

*Future Tense—Passive Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I should be known | We should be known |
| 2. Thou wouldst be known | You would be known |
| 3. He would be known | They would be known |

*Future Perfect Tense—Active Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I should have known | We should have known |
| 2. Thou wouldst have known | You would have known |
| 3. He would have known | They would have known |

*Future Perfect Tense—Passive Voice**Singular**Plural*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I should have been known | We should have been known |
| 2. Thou wouldst have been known | You would have been known |
| 3. He would have been known | They would have been known |

POTENTIAL MODE

Present Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ know	We	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ know
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mayst} \\ \text{canst} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ know	You	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ know
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ know	He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ know

Present Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ be known	We	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ be known
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mayst} \\ \text{canst} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ be known	You	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ be known
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ be known	They	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ be known

Present Perfect Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have known	We	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have known
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mayst} \\ \text{canst} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have known	You	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have known
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have known	They	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have known

Present Perfect Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known	We $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have been known
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mayst} \\ \text{canst} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known	You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have been known
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known	They $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{can} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ have been known

Past Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	know	We $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ know
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mightst} \\ \text{couldst} \\ \text{wouldst} \\ \text{shouldst} \end{array} \right\}$	know	You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ know
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	know	They $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ know

Past Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	be known	We $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ be known
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mightst} \\ \text{couldst} \\ \text{wouldst} \\ \text{shouldst} \end{array} \right\}$	be known	You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ be known

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	They	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$
	be known		be known

Past Perfect Tense—Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	have known	We $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ have known
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mightst} \\ \text{couldst} \\ \text{wouldst} \\ \text{shouldst} \end{array} \right\}$	have known	You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ have known
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	have known	They $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ have known

Past Perfect Tense—Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>		
1. I	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known	We $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known
2. Thou	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mightst} \\ \text{couldst} \\ \text{wouldst} \\ \text{shouldst} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known	You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known
3. He	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known	They $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{could} \\ \text{would} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$	have been known

IMPERATIVE MODE

Active Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
2. Know (thou)	2. Know (ye or you)

Passive Voice

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
2. Be (thou) known	2. Be (ye or you) known

VERBALS—INFINITIVES

Present Tense

<i>Active Voice</i>	<i>Passive Voice</i>
to know	to be known

Present Perfect Tense

<i>Active Voice</i>	<i>Passive Voice</i>
to have known	to have been known

VERBALS—PARTICIPLES

<i>Active Voice</i>	<i>Passive Voice</i>
<i>Present</i> , knowing	being known
<i>Past</i>	known
<i>Perfect</i> , having known	having been known

INDEX

ABBREVIATIONS, 67.

Abridgment of complex sentences, 219.

Absolute case, 170, 226.

Address, nominative case by, 171, 226.

Adjectives, 26; as modifiers, 27, 40, 41; predicate, 28; comparison of, 38-40, 41, 129; definition of, 41, 94, 128; in a series, 42; clauses, 87, 194-199; classes of, 128, 129; inflection of, 129-131; parsing of, 136; constructions of, 241, 242; equivalents of, 243; when used and how placed, 263-266.

Adverb, 45-48; definition of, 47, 94, 180; in a series, 48; clauses, 88, 199-203; classes, 180-183; comparison, 183; parsing, 183; when used and how placed, 263-266.

Analysis, 44; exercise in, 74, 75; forms of, 76; suggestive forms of, 298-301.

Anomalies, 293-297.

Antecedent: of pronouns, 113; omitted, 197; of prepositions, 184.

Appendix: A, 298; B, 302; C, 308.

Apposition, rule for, 111.

Appositive modifier, 111, 227, 241; objective, 232.

Articles: a, an, the, 128; use of, 132, 133.

As, various uses of, 289.

Assumed subject: of infinitive, 166, 169, 236; of participle, 171, 224, 237.

Attributive modifier, 241.

Be, auxiliary, 159.

But, various uses of, 290.

CAPITALS, rules for, 97.

Case, use of possessive form, 29; in nouns, 106; definitions of, 108.

Clauses, use of, 92, 93; adjective, 87, 194-199; noun, 89, 90; adverb, 88, 161-163, 191, 208, 209; temporal, 199, 282; local, 200; modal, 200; degree, 200; cause, 200; reason, 200; purpose, 161, 201, 280, 282; result, 201, 282; condition, 161, 201, 281; implying denial, 162, 280, 281, 282; doubt, 161, 280, 281, 282; indirect question, 282; wish, 282; decree or verdict, 282; substantive, 204-208; subordinate, 82, 90, 161-163, 191, 208, 209; principal, 82, 90, 191; classifying, 208; contracted into participial phrases, 262; use of, 92, 93, 194-209.

Comparatives, use of, 134-136.

Comparison, definition of, 38; of adjectives, 38-40, 41, 129; of adverbs, 183.

Complements of verbs, 140; attribute, 141; subjective, 141; object, 141; subjective adjective, 225, 234, 241, 242; subjective noun, 225; objective adjective, 233, 242; adverbial subjective, 242.

Concord of verb and subject, 267-275; of pronoun and antecedent, 118-120.

Conjugations of auxiliary, 155-158; *be*, 158, 308-310; *go*, 159; *know*, 310; definition of, 308.

Conjunctions, definition of, 53, 94, 186; use of, 54; classes of, 186, 211.

Conjunctive pronouns, 286.

Constructions, definition of, 107; of nouns, 108; of adjectives, 241; of nouns and pronouns, 221-240; of

participles, 245-253; of infinitives, 254-261.

Contractions, 67; use of, 68.

Copula, 141.

Copulative verbs, 142, 166.

DECLARATIVE sentence, 11, 79, 192.

Declension, personal pronouns, 115.

Diagraming, 44.

ELEMENTS of the sentence, 84; compound, 85-87.

Exclamation, nominative case by, 171, 226.

Exclamatory sentence, 11, 80, 193.

Expletives, 84, 85, 205, 285.

FACTITIVE object, 232.

GENDER: of nouns, 20, 101; of pronouns, 32, 101.

Grammar, definition of, 96.

IDEAS, 189.

Idioms, 293-297.

Idiomatic objective, 231.

Illative particles and propositions, 212.

Imperative mode forms and uses, 278.

Imperative sentence, 11, 79, 193.

Infinitive, definition of, 146; forms and uses of, 164-167; forms, functions, and constructions of, 254-261; subject of, 166, 167, 169, 236.

Inflection, 95, 114, 129, 131; definition of, 96.

Interjections, 54, 94, 187.

Interrogative adverb, 180, 181; pronoun, 122; sentence, 11, 79, 192.

Intransitive verb, definition of, 138.

LETTER writing, 72-74.

Lie, *lay*, 66.

Like, various uses of, 291.

MODE, definition of, 144; indicative,

145; potential, 145; imperative, 146, 278-280; subjunctive, 146, 280-284; forms and uses of, 161-163.

Modification, definition of, 96; of personal pronouns, 114-117; of interrogative and relative pronouns, 122; of adjective pronouns, 124.

Modifier, 84; compound, 87; appositive, 111, 227, 241; words, phrases, and clauses as, 93.

NOMIN, definition of, 16, 94; common and proper, 17, 97, 98; class, 98; abstract, 98; collective, 99; verbal, 99; singular and plural, 17-19; gender of, 20, 101; possessive forms of, 22; predicate, 28; in a series, 43; clauses, 89; classification of, 97-99; exercise in, 99; use of in sentence, 100; number of, 17-19, 103-105; person of, 105, 106; case of, 106-108; parsing, 109; appositive modifiers, 111; used with participles, 169-171; used with infinitives, 169-171; used independently, 169-171; case forms of, 221-240; constructions, 221-240.

Number, 17-19, 33, 103-105; in verbs, 153.

OBJECT, as an element, 84; compound, 86; of a verb, 26, 108, 110; of a preposition, 49, 108, 185; of infinitive, 165, 169; of participle, 170, 246; direct, 230; indirect, 230, 235; direct retained, 231; adverbial objective, 231, 232; idiomatic objective, 231; factitive, 232; resultant, 232; cognate, 235; reflexive, 117, 235; emphatic, 117, 235.

PARSING, exercise in, 77; of nouns, 109; of pronouns, 125; of adjectives, 136; of verbs, 172, 173; of infinitives, 173; of participles, 173; of

- adverbs, 183; of conjunctions and interjections, 187.
- Participles, definition of, 147; forms and uses of, 167-169; assumed subject of, 172, 224, 237; forms, functions, and constructions, 243-254.
- Partitive, a, 268, 270, 271.
- Parts of speech, definition of, 55, 94.
- Person, of pronouns, 34, 105, 106; of nouns, 105, 106; in verbs, 153.
- Phrases, prepositional, 48, 49; as adjective and adverb, 50; possessive forms and equivalent phrases, 51; use of, 92, 93; kinds and uses of, 174; definition of, 174; verb phrases, 62.
- Pleonasm, 171, 226.
- Possessive forms, 22, 51; use of, 29, 222-224; of pronouns, 35; rule for, 126.
- Predicate, as an element, 84; definition of, 13; compound, 14, 86; adjective, 28; noun, 28; pronoun, 36.
- Prepositions, 48, 184-186; definition of, 49, 94, 184; object of, 49, 108, 185, 235, 236; prepositions and phrases, 48, 184; phrase-prepositions, 185.
- Pronoun, definition of, 32, 94, 113; gender of, 32, 101, 125; number of, 33, 103, 125; person of, 34, 105, 125; as subject and object, 34; possessive forms of, 35; predicate, 36; in a series, 43; classes of, 114; substantives, 113; personal, modification of, 114-117; compound, 116, 235, 284; concord of, 118-120; interrogative, modification of, 122; relative, modification of, 122; compound, 286; as introductory words, 205; adjective pronoun, 123; demonstrative and indefinite, 123, 124; parsing of, 125; used with infinitives, 169-171; used independently, 169-171; case forms of, 221-238; construction of, 221-236; some special uses of, 284-288.
- Proposition, 80, 190; subordinate, 82; principal, 82.
- Punctuation: terminal marks, 11; of words in a series, 15; rules for, 97; of adjective clause, 195; of adverb clause, 201; of substantive clause, 205; of compound sentences, 212; of appositions, 227.
- QUESTIONS, direct and indirect, 71.
- Quotations, direct and indirect, 69.
- RELATIVE, modifications of, 122.
- Resultant object, 232.
- Rise, raise*, 66.
- Rules, for capitals and punctuation, 97.
- Self and selves*, 116, 284.
- Sentence, classed as to meaning, 11, 79, 192, 193; classed as to form, 80-83, 190, 191; simple, 80, 190; the elements of, 84; compound, 85-87; classifying, 91; compound, 80, 81, 191, 210, 213; punctuation of, 212; complex, 81, 191, 213; complex, abridged, 216; compound, abridged, 220; definition of, 11, 80, 190; subject of, 13, 84; subject may be, 222.
- Sequence of tenses, 275-278.
- Series, definition, 15; adjectives in, 42; nouns in, 43; pronouns in, 43; adverbs in, 48.
- Shall and will*, uses of, 177-179.
- Sit, set*, 66.
- Spelling, 40, 132.
- Structure, definition of, 96.
- Subject, as an element, 84; definition of, 13; compound, 14, 86; of finite verb, 110; of infinitive, 166, 169, 236; of participle, 171, 224, 237; may be, 222.
- Subjunctive mode forms and uses, 161-163, 280-284.

Substantives, definition of, 113; summary of case forms of, 237-239.

Superlatives, use of, 134-136.

Supplement: subjective adjective, 233; subjective noun, 233; objective noun, 232, 233; objective infinitive, 234; objective adjective, 233, 242.

Synopses, 160.

TENSE, definition of, 57, 147; tenses of indicative, 147, 148; modifying tense forms in the indicative, 149; tenses in the potential, 151; tenses in the other modes, 152; sequence of tenses, 275-278.

That, various uses of, 292.

That, who, which, what, and their compounds, 286-288.

This and *that*, 124, 133.

Thinking, 189.

Thought, a, 189.

Time, distance, measure, etc., 231, 238.

Transitive verbs: definition, 138.

Verb, assertive office of, 24; definition

of, 23, 94, 137; tense of, 57; five forms of, 57, 63; regular and irregular, 58, 139; five forms of irregular, 59; name form, s-form, past form, 61, 62; past participle form, 62; transitive and intransitive, 138; classes, 24, 137-139; complements of, 140; complete and incomplete, 141; person and number of, 153; notional and auxiliary, 154; conjugation of auxiliary verbs, 155-158; parsing, 172, 173; used incorrectly, 179; irregular, list of, 302-307; defective, 139, 307; redundant, 139; copulative, 142, 166; voice, 142-144; definition of, 143; impersonal, 138; verb phrases, 62.

Voice, 142-144.

What, various uses of, 292.

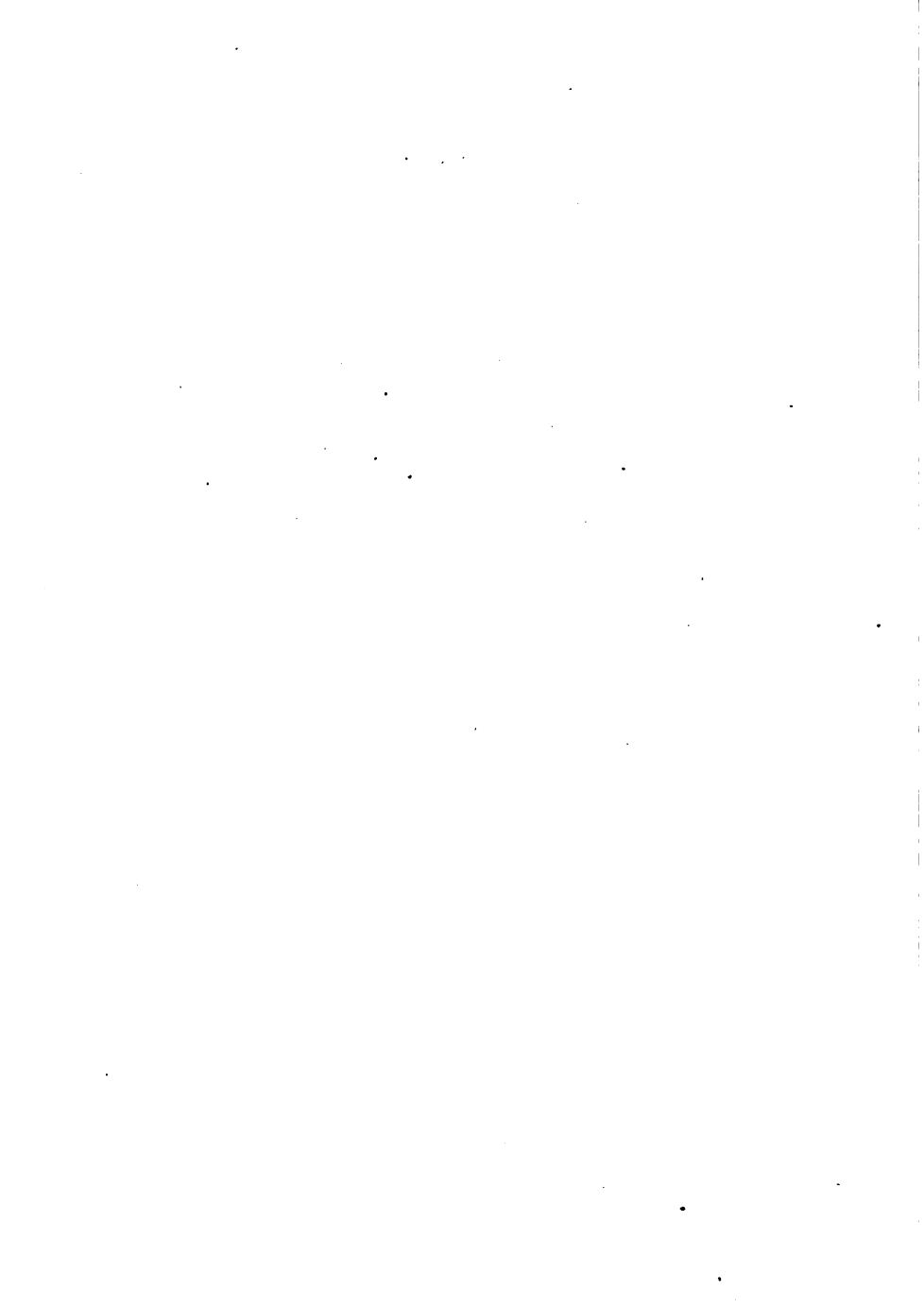
Word, definition of, 189.

Words, use of, 92, 93; variously used, 289-293.

Words and equivalent phrases, 52.

Words, phrases, and clauses, use of, 92, 93.

Would and *should*, 178.



Acme Library Card Pocket

Under Pat. "Ref. Index File"

Made by Library Bureau

530 ATLANTIC AVE., BOSTON

Keep Your Card in this Pocket

